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ABSTRACT

This collection contains essays on contemporary issues facing community colleges written by fellows in Princeton University's Mid-Career Fellowship Program. The essays are as follows: "Is Middlesex County College Accomplishing Its Mission?" (Xenia P. Balabkins); "The Coming of Age of Women's Studies: Attention Must be Paid" (Lynne M. DeCicco); "The Psychology of Women and Gender" (Miriam M. Dumville); "An English Professor Considers Mathematics" (Noreen L. Duncan); "On Assessing Philosophical Literacy" (Saul Kelton); "Literary Magazines at Community Colleges: Their Forms and Impact" (Bonnie M. MacDougall); "Clarifying Institutional Policy Toward International Students: A Community College Self-Study Model" (Sara B. Pfaffenroth); "Multiculturalism: A Design for Introductory Literature on the Community College Level" (Madeline Santoro); "New Technologies in Mathematics" (Jorge Sarmiento); "Proposal for an Early Retirement Incentive Program at Mercer County Community College" (Arthur E. Schwartz); "Has Collective Bargaining Damaged Shared Governance?" (Anthony Signorelli); and "Foreign Languages at New Jersey Two-Year Colleges" (George R. Willard). (HAA)

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ISSUES OF EDUCATION AT COMMUNITY COLLEGES

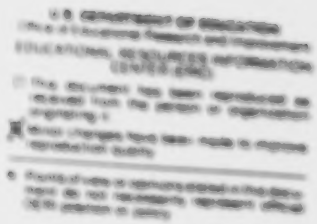
ESSAYS BY FELLOWS

IN THE MID-CAREER FELLOWSHIP PROGRAM

AT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

JUNE 1997

JC 970 402



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Princeton University
Mid-Career Fellowship Program
Fellows' Essays
1996-1997

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IS MIDDLESEX COUNTY COLLEGE ACCOMPLISHING ITS MISSION?

Xenia P Balabkins
Princeton Mid-Career Fellowship 1997

Over the course of the last few years Middlesex County College has placed an inordinate amount of attention and effort on the issue of transfer to four year institutions Articulation agreements have been worked on and signed with most of the four year colleges in New Jersey such as College of New Jersey Montclair Rider and Kean Dual admissions programs have been instituted with Rutgers and N J I T assuring the student who takes the appropriate courses, maintains the needed grade point average, and graduates, that he/she will be admitted as a junior to that college When students speak to counselors and advisors they are often cautioned about taking particular courses because "they won't transfer" The advertising often emphasizes the transferability of MCC credits

While I certainly applaud the attention to traditional academic goals such as attaining a bachelor's degree, I am concerned that perhaps we have forgotten our mission statement and are neglecting the needs of other equally important segments of our market

An organization commits to a place in the market through its organizational mission (Evans 1995) The purpose of an organizational mission statement is to provide a shared sense of purpose, direction, and opportunity answering questions such as "why do we exist?" "what should our business be?" and "who is our customer?"
The mission of Middlesex County College as printed in the catalogue is as follows

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> Middlesex County College is a publicly-supported comprehensive community college committed to serving all of those who can benefit from postsecondary learning opportunities. The College offers a wide range of curricula and programs that provide access to the educational process in a lifelong learning context for diverse populations within its service area. The College views the creation of an environment responsive to educational needs of the individual and the community as essential to the fulfillment of this mission.

To accomplish this mission eleven goals and fourteen objectives are also set forth. To measure how successful an organization is in accomplishing its mission traditionally one looks at the objectives and determines whether or not they have been met. For the purposes of this paper however I do not intend to evaluate each of the goals and objects specifically, rather I want to look at who our population is, how has it changed, what some of the needs may be. Does each student coming to Middlesex County College have the same needs or are they diverse? I submit that we have a diverse population with diverse needs, but we seem to be using what marketers call a homogeneous approach in delivering services and measuring success. The structure of the curricula and courses are the traditional structure and we measure success by the number of student that graduate.

The Office of Research and Planning at Middlesex County College has compiled some interesting statistical and demographic data regarding Middlesex County and Middlesex County College.

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- Middlesex County Population
  1970 - 580,000 1994 - 690,000

- Enrollment at MCC has declined in the last three years from a high of 5081 full-time (FT) and 7418 part-time (PT) students to a low of 4898 FT and 6680 PT students

- Fewer that 35% FT and 17% PT students actually graduate

As a result of these trends the administration has reactivated the enrollment management council to address these issues and develop a strategic plan

- 1980 - 1990 's increase change in ethnic population in Middlesex County

  African American 39% Asian 265% Hispanic 75% White 1%

- Ethnic Distribution of Middlesex County College Enrollments

African American	10.7%
Asian	15
Hispanic	14.6
White	59

- The overall composition of the new student by age has stayed about the same - FT 60% less than 19, 31% between 19 - 25, and 9% over 25 PT 14% under 19, 32% between 19 - 25 and 54% over 25

- Minority student population has shown the following pattern as far as percentage of student body: Asian 1991 - 13% / 1995 - 15%
  Hispanic 1991 - 11% / 1995 - 14.6%
  African American 1991 - 10.5% / 1995 - 10.7%

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- Educational Objectives at Middlesex County College

	FT	PT
Career Degree	18%	40%
Job related courses	?	4
Transfer Degree	41	28
Personal Growth	?	6 8

The percentages did not change significantly from 1991 to 1995

- Educational Plans

	FT	PT
Less than 2 yr degree	1 5%	5%
2 yr degree	13	25
4 yr degree or more	86	70

This data supports the fact that our population is diverse and has diverse needs The fact that our enrollment has declined while the population of the county has increased is cause for concern and is being examined by the enrollment management council If we look at the situation from a marketing perspective it suggests that we are not meeting the needs of our diverse market This is not to say that Middlesex County College has done nothing at all to meet the students' needs On the contrary there have been a number of creative measures taken but more needs to be done

I am confident that the Enrollment Management Council will examine many areas and issues, however, as I suggested at the beginning, the use of a homogeneous approach to delivery of services and measuring success needs to be addressed

For example regardless of the purposes for attending the college all students must take the college placement tests to determine whether or not the student needs

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remediation. The student then must complete all of the courses the test has indicated are necessary. It should be noted that 80% of the student body needs to remediate in at least one area and 34% need remediation in at least four areas. This is fine for the traditional student, and in fact is important for a successful academic career, but what about the segment of the market who only wants to upgrade job related skills or is simply taking courses for personal growth and interest. The prospect now of having to take remedial courses, and for part-timers this could mean only remedial courses, is daunting and discouraging. Perhaps the reason the percentages of students in these two categories are low is not that the market segment is small but rather that college policies discourage them.

A colleague in the English Department gave another example. The structure of remedial courses is such that even if a student may need remediation in only one skill unit, having passed the other ones, he must retake the entire course - discouraging and viewed as a waste of time and money by the student. This is also true for mathematics classes.

With the increase of immigrants in Middlesex County, the English as Second Language Department has grown significantly. Here again we need to look at the diverse needs of this population. First of all there are many that are literate in their own language and in fact have a university degree and now need to improve their skills in English so that they can work. They may have a medical degree and while they may not be able to practice medicine here they are interested in working in a related field. Unfortunately there is no mechanism by which they can begin taking related courses, without first

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completing ESL courses and often remedial English courses These students feel that by the time they get to the courses they are interested in they will be old and gray and so they leave

On the other hand, there are students who not only do not speak English but they cannot read or write in their native language It would seem to me that the approach and the time needed in an ESL class would be different for these students than for the ones who already have some knowledge of grammar

Our mission statement does not say that we serve only those students that want to graduate and transfer, rather it includes "all those who can benefit from postsecondary learning". In evaluating our success we need to consider more than graduation and retention While these factors are certainly important to the academic environment attention should be given to some of the reasons that students do not come back or do not graduate If a student does not come back because the school did not meet a particular need and left unhappy, the reason needs to be learned and, if appropriate, remedied If on the other hand, the student left because the purpose for attendance was accomplished, this needs to be acknowledged somehow in the statistics. For example, if a foreign student came to learn English and take some business and computer courses and then went back without completing a degree got a job using both skills would this be considered successful accomplishment of our mission? I submit that it is

In conclusion, I by no means am suggesting that academic standards be lowered rather we need to look at our diverse segments and address ways that we can meet the changing needs Market research needs to be done to see what the needs are in the

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community. We cannot continue using a homogeneous approach to reach diverse segment. We need to get creative in the delivery of our services and expand the way we measure success.

It should be noted that since I started thinking about this topic the administration at Middlesex County College has hired a marketing consulting to address these issues. They will be looking at how the college is perceived by the community, how students view the college, and what the needs are of the community. I look forward to reading their findings and recommendations.

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The Coming of Age of Women's Studies: Attention Must be Paid

Lynne M. DeCicco
Raritan Valley Community College

• • • •

> Perhaps women were once so dangerous that they had to have their feet bound.
> --Maxine Hong Kingston
> --The Woman Warrior[1]

> If we insist on discovering something we can clearly label as a 'feminine mode,' then we are honor-bound, also, to delineate its counterpart, the 'masculine mode.'
> --Annette Kolodny
> --"Some Notes on Defining a 'Feminist Literary Criticism' "[2]

> The question is not how we are to be men. Rather, the fundamental violation and violence done to all of us lies in the notion that men must be masculine, that masculinity is a goal to be attained.
> --Harry Brod
> --"The Politics of the Mythopoetic Men's Movement"[3]

--Overview

These quotations underscore vivid, contrasting, and, curiously, overlapping views in the critical landscape known as women's studies and its emerging literary cousin, the men's movement. The first highlights the inherent "dangerousness" of

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[1]Maxine Hong Kingston, The Woman Warrior (NY: Vintage, 1975).

[2]Annette Kolodny, "Some Notes on Defining a 'Feminist Literary Criticism,'" Critical Inquiry 2 (Autumn 1975): 78.

[3]Harry Brod, "The Politics of the Mythopoetic Men's Movement," The Politics of Manhood: Profeminist Men Respond to the Mythopoetic Men's Movement, ed. Michael S. Kimmel (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1995).

women, an early sensibility emanating from the women's movement grounded in the 60's: the notion that women were victims needing to be silenced, that they were the enemy, that they required guidance and "binding." Literary study illustrated how women were essentially misunderstood, and masculinity, when touched upon at all, was viewed through the lens of patriarchal tenets, among them condescension, control, exploitation, and power.

The second quotation promotes a fair approach towards understanding, an inspired outgrowth of the mid-70s criticism that sought to highlight connection between the sexes. If we are to understand women, it was felt, we must by rights recognize the need to address male needs and concerns as well. All of what we term "masculine" cannot be thrown into one pile; as with women's studies, there exist vast differences in masculine approaches to literary study, to culture, to authority, and to sexuality. This thinking encouraged a parallel approach to teaching, affording students the opportunity to appreciate opposing viewpoints of the gender issue.

The final and most recent quotation comes from a staunch profeminist within the current men's movement; he clarifies the sense that this movement cannot purport to speak for all men, that all men do not define masculinity the same way or that all men even wish to be "masculine" in a traditional sense.

--<u>The Problem with competing "studies"</u>

It is this last notion that forms the basis for this discussion, solidifying a growing awareness that women's studies is

the unfortunate victim of its own success. The offshoots--cultural diversity, men's studies, African-American studies--are part of the very essence of what women's studies was attempting to do in the early 60s: transform the curriculum, in order to provide an alternative approach to literary studies. All of these varying perspectives are often viewed as being at odds with one another, particularly, men's studies and its relationship to women's studies.

The problem is, how do we achieve a synthesis to afford students the best possible education without simplifying or diluting the original courses designed to study women's issues? There is a definite validation of history that cannot be overlooked: the women's movement in its infancy was an activist movement that students need to understand. In conjunction with this historical underpinning, there needs to be unity among the varying studies.

What is at issue is what many feminists call "the challenge of gender studies" where "to talk about women or certainly to advertise the fact that this is what one is doing now appears to have become somewhat controversial and less acceptable."[4] In their chapter, "Facing the 1990s: Problems and Possibilities for Women's Studies," Joanna de Groot and Mary Maynard crystallize why the

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[4]Mary Evans, "The Problem of Gender for Women's Studies" Out of the Margins, ed. Jane Aaron and Sylvia Walby (London: Falmer, 1991). See also, Jane Flax, Thinking Fragments (California: University of California Press, 1987) and "Postmodernism and Gender Relations in Feminist Theory" Signs (12) 1990; David Ford and Jeff Hearn, Studying Men and Masculinity (Bradford: University of Bradford, 1988.)

men's movement took hold:

> A further development of concern here is the increasing interest in the study of masculinity and the development of men's studies. The argument for such work is that, although it is the case that men, historically, have been the main subjects of academic research and discussion (and indeed this was the very reason for the development of Women's Studies), it was men in a genderless sense who were being given less attention. There was little direct focus on the social construction of 'men.' It was as if the nature of manhood and the qualities associated with this were irrelevant to understanding the social world. It has been argued, therefore, that in focusing on men, researchers are giving due regard to an area of study which is long overdue (153).[5]

Perhaps long overdue, but there has to be a way to address the literary and social construction of masculinity without diminishing all of the study devoted to women that is still valid. The men's movement cannot be seen apart from women's lives, values and goals: "The feminist approach is the only one which will allow not only for the articulation of difference between the sexes, but for an acknowledgement that difference also involves inequality. This is because the Women's Studies perspective is attuned to difference in terms of inequality with regard, for example, to resources,

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[5] Women's Studies in the 1990s, ed. Joanna deGroot and Mary Maynard (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1993).

legitimacy and authority" (de Groot and Maynard, 173).

-"Women in Literature" at Raritan Valley

In terms of "Women in Literature" a course I developed and have now taught at Raritan Valley for over twelve years (having refined the syllabus many times over that period), I have always seen a need to be inclusive. I do not wish to see a gradual diminishment or the watering-down of this course, nor even the substitution of "women" in the title for a more generic word, less woman-centered. As I have already demonstrated, students need to see linkages of gender through an introduction to what is possible right in their own community. The service-learning project that is now an ongoing component of "Women in Literature" affords an application of theoretical concerns with real people; it strengthens the correlation between academia and community service, which is certainly one mission of the community college.[6]

Even well before service-learning became an educational avenue, when I first taught as a preceptor in graduate school it seemed natural for me to include discussions of women and men on all my syllabi, even those courses that were not primarily about literature. Some of the best critical scholarship was being addressed in my own field (the Victorian novel) by feminist scholars where attitudes towards silence, audience and a female subtext offered new perspectives on traditional texts. Expanding beyond my own field, I discovered that women's issues could be

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[6]See my article "Service Learning Project Enlarges Scope of 'Women in Literature' " Innovations in Teaching (November, 1995) Raritan Valley Community College, Appendix 1.

examined in other courses as well: In a composition class, what better way to explore the notions of finding a voice, of paving the way towards confidence in one's ability to write an effective essay than to look at pieces focusing on just that issue of voice, audience, and identity (i.e., Virginia Woolf's ground-breaking "A Room of One's Own" or Judith Siefers's "I Want a Wife"). In an introduction to literature course, what better way to address how to interpret theme and underlying motivation than to read works by and about women who were themselves consistently misinterpreted, such as Charlotte Perkins Gilman's The Yellow Wallpaper or Zora Neale Hurston's Their Eyes were Watching God. What is perhaps most ironic here is that I explored the problematics of male identity long before the movement vocalized its concerns. In a survey of world literature, what better way to expand further on women's issues, including notions of marginalization and victimization, than to re-examine classic male texts, such as the parallel male and female motifs at work in The Odyssey or The Epic of Gilgamesh. What I am saying is the integration of gender concerns, of race, and of ethnicity was something I always tried to embrace and rather took for granted. It is troubling to perceive an obvious resistance to this notion.

"Attention must be paid" - Solutions

Educators need to recognize that these varied strands of discourse ought to form a coalition. This collaborative effort is especially pertinent to the community college student population of the 90s and into the next century, where the interconnectedness of

the work force, the pragmatic needs of the family, technology, and education is clearly evident. Just as these interrelations have transformed the traditional boundaries of work and home, classroom and cyberspace, family and care providers, so too must students comprehend the connections among and between women's studies and other approaches. We need to embrace fluidity, not promote bifurcation, or, to put it differently, we need to offer the complexities among and between what the poet Audre Lourde terms "interwoven oppressions."[7]

Attention must be paid to a dangerous polarization of studies; rather than rejecting women's studies, the two ought to work in tandem. It seems more meaningful to examine men and women together: if women are still oppressed, let's examine the oppressor; if men feel overwhelmed by rigid masculine definitions, let's explore who is doing the defining and at whose expense; if men feel more at ease recognizing a sensitive, nurturing side to their manhood, let's follow through with it to achieve a greater sense of purpose and commitment. They can and should work together for a mutually attainable goal, as Lois W. Banner asserts:

> I have come to realize that a feminist analysis can be applied to the situation of men as well as to that of

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[7]Indeed, as deGroot and Maynard point out, "the challenge of diversity points to the fact that women's lives are structured, mediated, and experienced through a variety of oppressive forces" including, they make clear "exercising power and privilege over other women. Thus, although all women may be oppressed, they do not share a common oppression" (152). This idea raises important problems for women's studies and course development because it highlights the inaccuracy imbedded in the concept of "woman" as one universal category.

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> women. Patriarchy has been harmful to men. As much as the academic disciplines have overlooked women or trivialized them, they have also applied rigid behavioral categories to men. If substantial gender change is to occur, men as well as women must be reached (144).[8]

--Student Questionnaire - "Women in Literature"

I questioned students on some of these issues with a questionnaire during Fall, 1996 (Appendix 2; 24 in the class, 22 responding). Everyone felt the course title, "Women in Literature" should stay as is; even changing to "Gender and Literature" would, as one student phrased it, "seriously dilute the representative nature of the title." Under Question 4, students were most vocal about providing a synthesis of ideas under the main rubric of the course. A typical response was, "It's hard to separate women from race, men, culture, and class because it is so much a part of who they are and how they are defined. How can we discuss Sula [Toni Morrison] without race, class and culture?" This is a valid point that was eloquently raised many times: women's lives are interwoven with all the other oppressive concerns that underlie literary study.

--Student proposals for achieving unity

In responding to the final question, students also offered thoughtful commentary on the ways a synthesis could be achieved:

(1) Divide the current course "Women in Literature" into two

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[8]"Women's Studies and Men's Studies: An Alternative Approach" Women's Studies Forum (Vol. 9, No. 2) 1986: 141-144.

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separate courses that parallel one another thematically. "Women in Literature I" ought to focus on early history, theory, and the forerunners of feminist thought and applications to literature. "Women in Literature II" could focus on applications that interconnect in the wave of recent academic ventures, embracing race, ethnicity, and the men's movement. Although each could be taken independently, the first course would complement and lead naturally into the second. Arguments that support this framework tend to feel that a firm basis of the historical and critical underpinnings of women's studies needs to be established first before applying ideas to other types of studies. Students were generous in their willingness to see other viewpoints: "To understand women we also need to understand what motivates men--we are in the world together. I'd like to study more about why men are compelled to dominate and wield power and control." Clearly, organizing the course in this fashion would allow more discussions of this nature to occur.

(2) Organize the course by period, placing each work in the context of its time period in terms of race, ethnicity, and/or men's studies, but make the works by and about women in keeping with the course. As one student wrote, "I would like to see it (the course) by period similar to American Literature or World Literature I and II, i.e., pre-Civil War, post-Civil War, or Enlightenment, post-18th Century. It's important to see the evolution of <u>women</u> in "Women in Literature." This chronological approach would afford students a chance to build a women's studies

timeline, so to speak, which is appealing. "Women in Literature--Antiquity to the Enlightenment" for example, could be followed by "Women in Literature--Eighteenth Century to the Modern Era." The course could offer diverse approaches to key literary women's texts, from an historical perspective, including issues relating to race, gender, and ethnicity.

(3) The final response was that "Women in Literature" does not require division. Of the 22 responses received, twelve students felt all issues were entertwined in a schema that afforded ample opportunity to see differing issues: "If the course were to be broken down, I think it would lose some of its balance," wrote one student. Of these twelve, two indicated that the course description should be rewritten to ensure that students understand "that other issues (such as men and race) are also discussed in the class."

Perhaps in the long run a more overarching focus in several disciplines on gender could be put together for those students who wish to explore these topics in more depth. Focusing on both the theoretical and the experiential is a key ingredient. The community college classroom is itself a synthesis of varying perspectives; it seems plausible to recognize that women's studies is no different.

February 1997

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Innovations in Teaching

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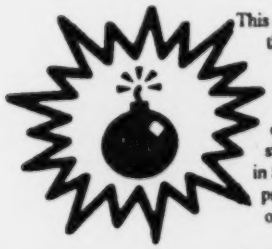
An 'Awakening':

Service Project Enlarges the Scope of Women in Literature

by Lynne DeCicco

A basic life requirement should be to sit in on a few hours of domestic court. This has got to be one of the most informative, thought-provoking assignments ever given. Not only was it fascinating to watch people revealing intimate and private details of their lives, but it was disturbing to see the breakup of relationships, marriages, and families. People don't enter into a relationship thinking that they will end up in court. It's hard to imagine the couples observed in these cases ever courting, dating, or being in love. It's amazing what people become capable of when they are hurt by someone they love.

— Women in Literature student



This observation crystallizes students' reflections in the aftermath of a service-learning project implemented in **Women in Literature** last Spring and continuing this semester. In the interest of promoting an educational synthesis of law, literature, and women's issues, I asked students to observe domestic violence hearings in Somerset County Superior Court, Family Part, proceedings which remain, interestingly enough, open to the public.

Approximately 25 students took part, taking down impressions of what they deemed significant from the standpoint of gender issues. They were asked to consider the kinds of topics we address that underscore or parallel those witnessed in court: gender roles; marital dynamics relating to power, sex, and/or, money; attitudes towards identity and growth.

The Judges, Thomas H. Dilts and Graham T. Ross, Jr., whom I met with prior to student involvement, fully endorsed the assignment; when time permitted, both met with students after the hearings to explicate points of law or just answer questions related to what they had observed. Students were also provided with an overview of the court system in Somerset County and the laws governing domestic violence prior to their observations so that they would appreciate the legal underpinnings of their observations more completely.

The actual service component of the project involved writing observation papers submitted confidentially to the Women's Resource Center and their Families in Bound Brook. Joan Sulzman, Director of the Center, was most enthusiastic about this aspect of the project she termed it a "court watch" that helped the Center foster greater sensitivity and awareness for culturally-proscribed gender roles and how these can be subtly subverted or endorsed through the use of language, control, and/or authority in the courtroom.

An added feature was a visit by Judge Dilts to my class Affably consenting to read *The Awakening*, a nineteenth-century novel highlighting psychological domestic turbulence in the wake of a woman's search for identity and purpose, the Judge commented on the laws governing women at the time the novel was written by Kate Chopin (1899) synthesizing the text's legal and social constraints with current law relating to domestic abuse and harassment. Students were enthralled - what a marvelous dialogue ensued as the class enlarged the scope of the novel, suggesting that the domestic assault practiced on the protagonist's Pontillier, is a nineteenth-century version of the same abuse still visited on women today.

(APPENDIX A)

What did *I* expect to emerge from all of this? I can say now that I was not sure what would occur, but I knew it was an interdisciplinary approach that was the right one for the course as I define it. One goal which stems in part from my own doctoral work was to demystify the law in order to encourage greater awareness for laws affecting women. The observations combined with student writing and the open dialogue with the Judge, succeeded in doing just that, but in ways I had not foreseen: students were impressed by the swiftness of the family court system (domestic violence hearings come up quickly, generally within a week of signing a complaint), by the relative ease and speed of determining credibility and rendering a fair sentence. People's lives can be severed so quickly, and lives are so fragile. Beyond this, they were amazed and appalled by the number of litigants who appear to undermine the legal process through obvious deceit, improper lawsuits, and lack of respect for the system overall.

Students also commented on the irony of being part of a triple layer of audiences within the theatre of the court - a variation, as one put it, on Plato's cave: there were the current litigants in the spotlight, there were other litigants waiting to go on, and there was the Judge, the appointed audience who listens and renders a decision; they came to see that while they were students on an assignment they also formed yet another audience, and often unconsciously assumed the role of second silent judge during the proceedings. I know because I was there a few times myself - I wanted to share in the experience too in order to witness what the students had encountered.

I also did not count on the ways the assignment itself made students consider the ramifications of their own lives: numerous students had already been volunteers, at local shelters and clinics, but the assignment induced many others to discover a service bond within their own communities: students became volunteers, at the Resource Center and elsewhere; they served as Big Sisters, worked at Alcoholics Anonymous; they even sea themselves in a few of the litigants they observed. One young woman told me she realized she had been the victim of harassment for many years and had never understood or recognized she could change it, had it not been for this assignment.

Next semester, I plan to offer the newly-designed "Law and Literature," and I know some of the ideas generated from this project can be applied to this course as well. I plan to expand the legal themes in literature, from the trial as theatre (Sophocles' *Antigone*), to law as oppressive nightmare (Kafka's *The Trial.*) I would also like to explore attitudes towards jury involvement and selection as well as the language and role of a judge. Judge Dilts and Ross have expressed enthusiasm for pursuing these ideas next semester.

I conclude with a final comment by a student who expressed amazement that the relative affluence of Somerset County could support - nay, foster - such an outpouring of violence and abuse:

*I wasn't exactly shocked by what I heard in that courtroom, just surprised. After all, these people were well dressed, articulate self-employed business owners who came from a fairly affluent neighborhood. In addition, I assumed that the days when women were dependent on their husbands for financial as well as emotional support were long gone. However, I now realize that domestic violence can happen to anyone, anywhere. In addition, dependence and a fear of striking out on one's own lead many women to remain in unhealthy relationships. In either case, a woman's only saving grace can be a fair and sympathetic legal system. Therefore, I was relieved and even felt a bit vindicated as a woman to see justice served... Perhaps if everyone took the time to visit her or his local court house, instead of watching the circus the media so often creates on television they would realize just how common violent attacks on women are.**

According to Joan Sulzman, in accordance with the most recent statistics published by the National Woman Abuse Prevention Center (Washington, D.C.), close to 96% of reported domestic assaults are perpetrated against women.

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Women in Literature
Questions for Princeton study
Dr. Lynne DeCicco

1. Why did you take this course? Try to go beyond "because it fulfills a requirement" or "because it fit into my schedule." Given that the course content clearly focuses on women--issues, lives, values, aspirations--what made you decide to take it? Do you like it? Why?

2. Do you consider yourself a feminist? What, briefly, is your definition of a feminist? Have you felt comfortable in class if you are not a feminist? Please elaborate.

3. Would you prefer that the course have a different focus, perhaps even a different title? Is it important that the word "women" appear in the course title? Would you rather see the course entitled "Gender and Literature"? What, in your mind, is the difference?

4. Do you think dealing with issues relating to men still fits into this course, given that we tend to discuss men and women, or is the inclusion of men (i.e., male characters, male confinement, male authors) troublesome for you? Would you rather focus exclusively on women? What about other perspectives that need to be addressed--race, culture, class--can these still be a part of our discussion, or do they cloud the issue?

5. Perhaps this course needs to be broken down into two or more courses. If you think so, what would you want them to be?

(APPENDIX B)

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The Psychology of Women and Gender

Miriam McCarthy Dumville
Raritan Valley Community College

Mid-Career Fellowship Program
May, 1997

Curriculum offerings at any college need to reviewed periodically to determine if the academic goals of the institution are being met. Likewise, individual departments must examine offerings in each discipline to determine if courses are current, reflect the body of work that comprises that discipline, and satisfy students needs in a changing world. As new areas in a discipline evolve, colleges must ensure that course offerings reflect and embrace development and change. At Raritan Valley Community College, standard courses in psychology are offered each academic year including Introduction to Psychology, Abnormal Psychology, Social Psychology, Developmental Psychology, Theories of Personality and Community Psychology. These courses are traditional and are offered at most colleges and universities across the nation. As a result, these courses transfer easily to four-year institutions, which is an important consideration for students and faculty at community colleges.

The psychology of women and gender is an area of research which has yet to be incorporated into the curriculum at RVCC. The psychology of women traces its roots to the traditional field of psychology known as differential psychology (Hyde, 1996). However, since the 1970's, the psychology of women (also known as feminist psychology) has blossomed into a separate discipline within psychology, with its own perspective, topics of interest and methods of research. Courses in the psychology of women are now commonplace. A recent survey of 503 undergraduate psychology departments found that 51% listed courses in the psychology of women (Women's Programs Office, 1991 as cited by Unger & Crawford, 1996).

A Brief History of the Psychology of Women

All psychology and science develops within a social and cultural context (Unger & Crawford, 1996) and the psychology of women developed simultaneously with the emergence of the second wave of feminism. The psychology of women began with a critical analysis of psychology's study and treatment of women. This analysis uncovered several biases against women within traditional psychology. Psychology's views on women were generally negative (Hyde, 1996) as can be seen in the writings of G.Stanley Hall, the founder of the American Psychological Association.

> (Academic specialization) is more liable to be developed at the expense of reproductive power, for the two, beyond a certain very variable point, become inversely as each other. Woman is so altruistic in her nature that her supreme danger is that she will take out of her system more than it will bear before she knows it, and that over-activity of the brain during the critical period of the middle and later teens will interfere with the full development of mammary power and of the functions essential for the full transmission of life generally (Hall, 1906 as cited by Matlin, 1996).

Feminist criticism of traditional psychology has focused on several different biases. Most early researchers were men (Matlin, 1996) and women were systematically barred from opportunities to work in the field (Rossiter, 1982). Many theories in psychology are based on male as norm and female as deviation from the norm (Fox Keller, 1996; Hyde, 1996). Researchers revised their interpretation of findings in order to match their theories, frequently documenting female inferiority (Matlin, 1996; Rossiter, 1982; Stepan, 1996). Women's experiences differ qualitatively from men's. Because topics relevant to women's lives were not deemed worthy of study, they became invisible. These experiences include menstruation, pregnancy, childbirth, marital violence, and

achievement motivation in women (Hyde, 1996; Matlin, 1996; Unger & Crawford, 1996). A feminist psychology of women examines these topics in order to give voice to women's experiences. Since it is feminist in focus, it is activist in directing research to uncover the complex factors affecting women's lives and in attempts to advance social, political, economic and legal equality for women (Unger & Crawford, 1996). Science is never value neutral (Schiebinger, 1996; Unger & Crawford, 1996) and neither is feminist psychology.

Methodological Biases

Feminist psychologists would argue further that traditional psychology is androcentric not only in theory and in accumulated knowledge but also in research methodology. Bias can be found at many junctures and the feminist psychology attempts to correct these methodological flaws. The numerous ways in which bias can enter the research process has been described in detail (Fine, 1985; Grady, 1981; Hyde, 1996; Matlin, 1996; Unger & Crawford, 1996). Essentially, all research begins with theory or observation, proceeds to hypothesis formulation, experimental design, data collection and analysis, interpretation and publication of results and ends with incorporation of results into the body of scientific knowledge.

Gender bias can enter as theory directs the research and interpretation of results (e.g. Freudian theory). The kind of questions that are asked may be biased, such as examining the negative psychological effects of a mother's work on her children while ignoring any positive outcomes that might ensue and simultaneously ignoring the possible negative impact of father's commitment to work on children. The choice of research participants can further bias outcomes if the sample is not representative. Traditional psychology has

a long history of using white, middle-class, male college students as participants in studies, the results of which have been overgeneralized to be representative of human nature. Details of additional biases that can be found in the work of Hyde (1996) and Matlin (1996) are included in Appendices I and II.

Feminist psychologists have suggested several research alternatives which include a movement away from empirical research toward methods that provide some contextual validity to women's lives such as observation and interviews and an emphasis on topics previously neglected by traditional psychology.

The Themes Within the Psychology of Women and Gender

A survey of three widely used textbooks in this area (Hyde, 1996; Matlin, 1996; Unger & Crawford, 1996) reveals several themes that distinguish the research.

> Theme One: Psychological gender differences are generally small and inconsistent.
> Theme Two: People react differently to men and women.
> Theme Three: Women are less visible than men in many important areas.
> Theme Four: Women vary widely from one another.
>
> (Matlin, 1996)

> Theme One: Gender and Sex need to be differentiated
> Theme Two: Language and Naming are sources of power
> Theme Three: The diversity of women
> Theme Four: Psychological research and social change
>
> (Unger & Crawford, 1996)

> Recurrent Themes rooted in history:
> Male as normative
> Feminine evil
> Recurrent Themes rooted in modern science:
> Gender similarities
> The difference between theory and empirical evidence
> The difference between traits and situational determinants of behavior
> The female deficit model
> The importance of values
>
> (Hyde, 1996)

Feminist psychology represents an alternative approach to study of women - with a critical analysis of research methodology and an incorporation of topics and themes not represented in traditional psychology. It is an approach that values women and attempts to provide contextual validity to their lives. Within this approach, gender is seen as a lens or prism through which each person experiences her world. The psychology of gender examines the processes by which gender is constructed and how gender influences lives not only in the abstract but also in the everyday experiences of women and men. These processes are examined by the psychology of women literature; however, the negative effect of these processes on women remains a central theme. Courses in the psychology of women incorporate current analysis of psychological theory and research concerning women's lives and include expanded coverage of topics typically ignored or given cursory attention in traditional psychology classes. These topics include psychological theories of women's personality development, individual and societal influences on women's achievement and career development, women's experiences in the work environment, mothering and long-term relationships, the victimization of women and mental health issues.

Recommendation

In order to incorporate this new research and the recent critical analysis of methodology into the curriculum, a course in the psychology of women and gender should be added to the offerings in psychology departments at all undergraduate institutions. The psychology of women and gender is now an established discipline, with volumes of new research findings each year. Research in this area appears regularly in traditional journals

such as *American Psychologist*, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology and Developmental Psychology* as well as in professional journals which focus entirely on the field, such as *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *Feminism and Psychology*, *and Sex Roles*. This course has been approved and will be offered at Raritan Valley Community College during the Fall, 1997 semester. The psychology of women and gender will satisfy general education goals and will transfer easily.

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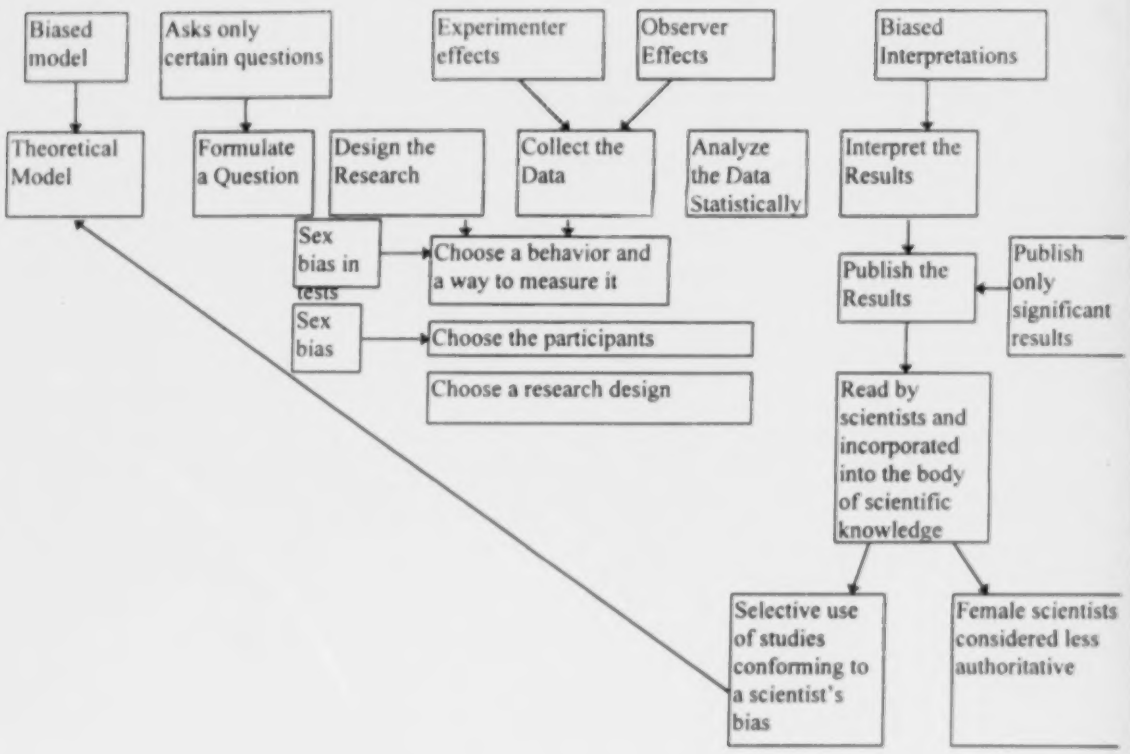
Appendix I


Biased model
Asks only certain questions
Experimenter effects
Observer Effects
Biased Interpretations
Theoretical Model
Formulate a Question
Design the Research
Collect the Data
Analyze the Data Statistically
Interpret the Results
Sex bias in tests
Choose a behavior and a way to measure it
Publish the Results
Publish only significant results
Sex bias
Choose the participants
Choose a research design
Read by scientists and incorporated into the body of scientific knowledge
Selective use of studies conforming to a scientist's bias
Female scientists considered less authoritative

(Hyde, 1996)

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Appendix II

Stages at Which Biases Can Influence the Research Process

I. Formulating the hypothesis
   A. Using a biased theory
   B. Formulating a hypothesis on the basis of unrelated research
   C. Asking questions only from certain content areas
II. Designing the study
   A. Selecting the operational definitions
   B. Choosing the participants
   C. Choosing the experimenter
   D. Including confounding variables
III. Performing the study
   A. Influencing the outcome through experimenter expectancy
   B. Influencing the outcome through participants' expectancies
IV. Interpreting the data
   A. Emphasizing statistical significance rather than practical significance
   B. Ignoring alternate explanations
   C. Making inappropriate generalizations
   D. Supplying explanations that were not investigated in the study
V. Communicating the findings
   A. Leaving out analyses that show gender similarities
   B. Choosing a title that focuses on gender differences
   C. Journal editors rejecting studies that show gender similarities
   D. Secondary sources emphasizing gender differences instead of gender similarities

(Matlin, 1996)

Raritan Valley Community College

Academic Course Outline

I. **Basic Course Information:**

A. Course Number and Title: 83 - Psychology of Women and Gender

B. Date of Proposal or Revision: February 23, 1997

C. Sponsoring Department: Social Science

D. Semester Credit Hours: 3

E. Weekly Contact Hours:
Lecture: 3
Laboratory: 0

F. Prerequisites: Introduction to Psychology

G. Laboratory Fees: None

II. **Catalog Description:**

This course focuses on the research that expands current psychological theory concerning the lives of women, including such topics as theories of women's personality development, individual and societal factors affecting women's achievement and career choices, work and family experiences, and mental health status. Feminist psychologists' criticism of traditional psychology will be examined along with an analysis of psychology's construction of the female. The processes by which both girls and boys develop a sense of gender within our culture will be integrated throughout.

III. **Statement of Course Need:**

Courses in the Psychology of Women and/or the Psychology of Gender have become typical in the undergraduate psychology curriculums. A survey in 1991 of 503 psychology departments in the US revealed that 51% offered courses in the Psychology of Women. This course will examine topics that are usually given only cursory attention in other courses. It is important for students to understand that women's experiences are valuable and deserve to be studied in their own right. By understanding how gender influences the lives of both women and men, students will gain a broader perspective of psychology and the influences on their own lives. This course will provide students with a wider choice of courses when selecting a psychology and/or social science elective.

IV. **Place of Course in College Curriculum**:

A. Satisfies general education requirements

B. Can be taken as a free elective, a Social Science elective or a recommended elective, depending on the program.

C. See above

D. The Psychology of Women and /or Gender is a course that is offered at over 50% of the undergraduate colleges nationwide.

V. **General Education Goals**:

The course will meet the following general education goals:

1. To develop the ability to think critically
2. To develop the ability to communicate effectively
3. To collect, organize, and evaluate information to address different kinds of problems
4. To develop the ability to make informed judgments concerning ethical issues
5. To develop an understanding of fundamental principles, concepts, theoretical perspectives, and methods of the Social Sciences
6. To develop an understanding of diverse cultures
7. To develop an historical consciousness
8. To develop an understanding of health and well being

VI. **Student Learning Outcomes**:

As a result of this course students will be able to:

1. differentiate between sex and gender
2. understand the social and cultural processes by which gender is constructed
3. evaluate psychological research critically
4. understand that psychological gender differences are generally small and inconsistent
5. understand that women's experiences are qualitatively different than men's
6. recognize the larger context of women's lives
7. understand that women are diverse, reflecting differences in race, ethnicity, age and social class.

VI. **Suggested Materials**:

Unger, R. & Crawford, M. (1996). *Women and gender: A feminist psychology* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Crawford, M. & Unger, R. (Eds.) (1997). *In our own words: Readings on the psychology of women and gender*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

VII. **Outline of Course Content**:

1. Introduction to a Feminist Psychology of Women
   Text - Chapter One
   Reader - pp. 5 - 43
2. Approaches to Understanding Girls and Women
   Text - Chapter Two
   Reader - pp. 47 - 73
3. The Meanings of Difference: Sex, Gender, and Cognitive Abilities
   Text - Chapter Three
   Reader - pp. 135 - 144
4. Images of Women
   Text - Chapter Four
   Reader - pp. 119 - 134
5. Doing Gender: Sex, Status, and Power
   Text - Chapter Five
   Reader - pp. 96 - 107
6. Biological Aspects of Sex and Gender
   Text - Chapter Six
7. Becoming Gendered: Childhood
   Text - Chapter Seven
8. Becoming a Woman: Puberty and Adolescence
   Text - Chapter Eight
   Reader - pp. 74 - 94
9. Sex, Love, and Romance
   Text - Chapter Nine
10. Commitments: Women and Long-Term Relationships
    Text - Chapter Ten
11. Mothering
    Text - Chapter Eleven
    Reader - pp. 269 - 283
12. Work and Achievement
    Text - Chapter Twelve
    Reader - pp. 191 - 260
13. Midlife and Beyond
    Text - Chapter Thirteen

Reader - pp. 277 - 283

14. Violence Against Women
    Text - Chapter Fourteen
    Reader - pp. 152 - 164; 313 - 328
15. Gender and Psychological Disorders
    Text - Chapter Fifteen
    Reader - pp. 368 - 376

AN ENGLISH PROFESSOR CONSIDERS MATHEMATICS

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Faculty Mid-Career Fellows

Princeton University

May 1997

AN ENGLISH PROFESSOR CONSIDERS MATHEMATICS

Just as there are very fine mathematicians who write beautifully, there must be gifted authors of prose who solve complicated proofs in mathematics, effortlessly and with elegance. *Why then* couldn't the creative processes invoked in the solving of complex mathematical problems be similar to those used for composing beautiful writing? I have long suspected, or maybe hoped, that there might be some magical scalpel that would dissect the common sense that good mathematicians are not born good composers of erudite and fluent essays; that facile and creative writers of English composition are unable from childhood to progress past elemental algebra.

Contemporary, anecdotal, and television intelligence would have it that there might be fundamental differences in the way people are wired so that, try as they might, some cannot be both mathematicians and writers. There is a popular mythology that American girls, women, are not good at mathematics and that boys, men, are, naturally. Hormones, environmental factors and sports interest are individually or collectively to blame for this apparent academic dissonance. Sheila Tobias in *Overcoming Math Anxiety* explores and explodes a number of the generally held reasons for women's, and some men's, apparent inability to become higher level mathematicians:

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> . . . people who do well in mathematics from the beginning and people who have trouble with it have altogether different experience in learning math. These differences are not necessarily innate or cognitive or even, at the outset, differences in attitude or in appreciation for math. (Tobias 96)

A colleague and friend, a teacher of mathematics and computer science, has been somewhat intrigued and downright puzzled by this examination in which I say I'm engaged. Though quite supportive and indulgent -- he's lent me a book, *Did you Say mathematics?*-- he has patiently explained to me that one is either born a mathematician, or a writer, but that one cannot be both. He cites himself and his children as scientific and irrefutable proof: his daughter is at a young age already a beautiful writer; his son at a younger age is a mathematician. My own academic experiences and those that my students and colleagues report appear to support his contention. But there are too many good mathematicians who write elegantly to dispute his claim. I knew as a teenager that I was "good in English, but not in maths". But as an adult, a teacher of adult students who dismiss any notion that they might be "good" in more than one subject, I feel bound to reject their claims of academic handicap if I am to encourage them to be "good" at any subject at all.

I convinced myself that I was no good at maths since my early youth when Miss Daley sat in front of my high school geometry, or maybe that was algebra, class for over two years and we, her wicked and worthless girls, would gleefully write *QED* at the bottom of pages which we had filled with the most unlikely

mathematical figures and proofs and pass our books up for the class prefects to mark. As an undergraduate, I took a course called "Logic" for my mathematics requirements. I attempted physics one summer, but didn't finish it. In graduate school, I had to pass a statistics and probability course, but mathematicians tell me that statistics is not math. My current mathematical disability, or my posturing that the highly literate and literary have no need for mathematics, might be the result of those unfortunate mathematical experiences in my youth. But there were girls, even in that infamous high school class, who were very good at mathematics. My undergraduate physics professor was a woman. Being a gifted writer or a gifted mathematician is not evidence of the presence of xx or xy chromosomes.

For the most part, the adults I know, have planted themselves firmly in one or the other camp, smug in the knowledge that if one is mathematically inclined or gifted, one may be able to write error-free sentences and fairly standard prose, perhaps poetry, but one is not a "good" writer. Those who read and write literary masterpieces or just prefer to spend their leisure time with novels have no time for mathematics, which they know requires absolutely no creative thought. Unlike the mathematician, G. H. Hardy, who wrote . . . "I am interested in mathematics only as a creative art" (Hardy 115).

The narrative that I have constructed as the rationale for this bizarre foray into the realm of mathematics is that for generations English Composition students have told me that they're not good writers of the language because English is not their "good subject", mathematics is. Generally, I have not found that to be true. Good students appear to be good students, regardless of the subject matter -- at least those are not the students who challenge me and accuse me of changing the rules of the language, charging that they don't know "exactly" what "I" want from them in a composition. Whatever creative or systematic processes with which authors are engaged as they "produce" good writing must have parallels in the solution of mathematical problems. I know I don't think that the formulaic, mechanistic, fill-in-the blanks approach to basic college algebra is what I have in mind. I know that the wonderful unfolding of a problem on its way to a solution, that thing that mathematicians tell me is called a "proof" is what I have in mind.

Reading G. H. Hardy's *A Mathematician's Apology*, I have discovered beautiful writing, about mathematics. Hardy on mathematics and poetry:

> A mathematician, like a painter or a poet, is a maker of patterns. If his patterns are more permanent than theirs, it is because they are made with *ideas*. A painter makes patterns with shapes and colours, a poet with words. A painting may embody an "idea", but the idea is usually commonplace and unimportant. In poetry, ideas count for a good deal more; but as Housman insisted, the importance of ideas in poetry is habitually exaggerated: 'I cannot satisfy myself that there are any such things as poetical ideas . . . Poetry is not the thing said but a way of saying it.' . . . A mathematician, on the other hand, has no material to work with but ideas, and so his patterns are likely to last longer, since ideas wear less with time than words. (Hardy 84-85)

In the bestseller, *Godel, Escher, Bach: An Eternal Golden Braid*, Hofstadter links the "patterns' of the mathematician, Godel; the graphic artist, Escher; and the musical composer, Bach, invoking the ancient Greeks who ". . . knew that reasoning is a patterned process". (Hofstadter 19) Reasoning, arguing ones way through an intricate piece of prose. Listening for that elegant, economical, poetic word.. Composing, revising a thoughtful, thought-provoking essay. Making intricate patterns of syntax, decorated with florets of *mot justes*. As prose can be exposition and verbal representation of beauty in nature, flowers bloom in Fibonacci patterns: 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34 . . . Whatever I read that suggests there could be a meld of these apparently disparate ways of thinking, mathematically reasoning or linguistically fluent, confounds my thinking.

Most of us who consider ourselves non-mathematicians think mathematically, without consciousness that we do: We calculate the tip for the hairdresser; we measure for curtains and rugs; we convert pounds to ounces or millilitres to litres; we gauge how long it will take us to get to work, given certain traffic conditions and the amount of gas in the car. Many of us who teach English and write novels function so well in the mathematical world. Why aren't we then brilliant mathematicians? Why can't one be both?.

Colleague and friend B, another teacher of mathematics, explains that sometimes in the process of solving a problem with his students, he senses that he is in the middle of something beautiful. He suspects that writers in the creation of a beautiful piece of prose experience the same "rush." That is true. We, the mathematically challenged, should also be able, therefore, to feel that rush, but we have to get past the fear of arriving at the "solution, " right or wrong. Our schooling and disciplines and scholarly choices have taught us that we must have right answers at the ends of math *problems*. We don't worry about arriving at the correct solution as we begin writing a novel, even a mystery novel. Writers seem to enjoy the getting there, without too much concern that the outcome will be wrong, not unacceptable or disappointing or unexpected, but wrong. To enjoy and engage oneself in mathematics, then, the non-mathematician must indulge the same kind of process as in the creation of a lovely piece of prose.

Bertrand Russell in *Introduction to Mathematical Philosophy*:

> Mathematics is a study which, when we start from its most familiar portions, may be pursued in either of two opposite directions. The more familiar direction is constructive, towards gradually increasing complexity: from integers to fractions, real numbers, complex numbers; from addition and multiplication to differentiation and integration, and on to higher mathematics. The other direction, which is less familiar, proceeds, by analysing, to greater and greater abstractness and logical simplicity; . . . (Russell 1)

As a teacher of English Composition, I know that when I try to make beginning writing students recognize a kind of logical expansion of an argument

in a piece of prose, I often resort to explanations and patterning: "greater abstractness and logical simplicity." That same basketworking then, that weaving of ideas as we compose might be the same stuff of mathematics that Hardy talks about. If my composition students are to become good writers and pass college courses in which they must write, they must eventually believe, among other things, that they can express their thinking in patterns of prose recognizable to other readers and writers of the language. Part of the college English teacher's repertoire of propaganda is that learning to compose, to write essays, helps students learn to think; in ordering and producing good written language, they can, therefore, become logical thinkers -- mathematicians?

More propaganda, this time the elemental mathematics teacher's: "In order to attack a problem, first simplify it and find its essential features." "You could express the problem like this. . ." Clearly, both the teacher of composition and the teacher of math expect students to engage in a similar kind of thinking, and that has something to do with sorting, ordering, and expressing ideas in some "logical" pattern. But as any fairly good reader or writer of the language will attest, patterned language is not necessarily good language. Hofstadter reports that he once tried to develop a computer program that would generate English sentences. He spent a good deal of time "making the grammar flexible and recursive" (Hofstadter 620); he classified "each word -- noun, verb, preposition" (621); he attempted to ensure that there would be "agreement between the various parts of [a] phrase" (621) and so on. He enjoyed some

success as the program did indeed produce a number of grammatical, though not necessarily logical, sentences. His eventual sense of his creation was that "there was no sense of imagery behind what [was] said. . .the words were empty formal symbols "(623). That sense is akin to that of many elemental students of mathematics, and it reminds me of my reaction to the writings of some of my newer essay-writing students. They know that words and integers must follow each other in certain patterns, in sentences and equations, and they attempt to mimic those patterns but there is no real sense of "beauty" or "elegance" or even intelligence at work.

We, contemporary teachers of college composition, encourage our students to recognise and utilise the "rules of grammar" in the practise of writing. We no longer force students to learn rules of grammar by heart, voice, mood, parts of speech, as we did, in isolation. Be that as it may, there is general agreement in the academic writing community today that good writing is produced by students not when they are drilled with the rules and exceptions to the rules, but when they are engaged in the process and practice of writing. We believe that good prose is created as students write and voice themselves honestly. Many of us are therefore less concerned with whether adult students, college students, can recite the rules of the language as much as we are concerned with whether or not they know where to find resources to make their writing clear to intelligent readers.

I suspect that at some level that thinking is also applicable in the mathematics classroom. Students who use graphing calcuators are assumed to know how to multiply, but are surely not required to be able to recite the times tables to multiples of 14. A high level of mathematical ability and creativity no longer relies on the drilling of multiplication tables. In this way mathematics and English composition could be alike. This not to suggest that there are not fundamentals with which both the student of composition and of mathematics should be familiar. After all, our students are not "native" geniuses as the mathematician, Ramanujan, at the turn of the century, or the eighteenth century narrator, Olaudah Equiano.

What I am proposing and considering is two-fold: First, we must excite our community college students to learn to love learning, not to be be afraid of the light, to turn away from it, to be blinded by it, but to turn their faces to it and feel its warmth. In some simple way, learning new stuff must be perceived as, not just interesting, but heady. Many of us mouth the mantra -- "students must be excited about school". But we, ourselves, are not excited, are often afraid to consider anything outside of our "disciplines". That is the second part of this proposition: We must stretch ourselves even as we expect students to take the risk and learn something new. If as teachers we exhibit fear or disdain for other areas of scholarship, for new ways of acquiring knowledge, we unconsciously encourage our students to also be afraid to mentally stretch, to intellectually explore, to struggle with the new and often frightening challenges of academic

life. Many of my students don't really yet know what their "good subjects" are. Why should it be mathematics or English?

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On Assessing Philosophical Literacy

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1. The goal in teaching philosophy is to develop philosophically literate students. I take my precise teaching task to be to ensure that students develop philosophical literacy by design and not by chance. Now, what does it mean to be philosophically literate, and how do I know when students achieve it? In this paper I intend to delineate what philosophical literacy means in order to determine its proper method of assessment. My main concern is to see if my current method of assessment in my philosophy course is the most proper one.

2. In an enlightening article called 'Developing Philosophical Literacy' Miller (1995) articulates both what it means to be and how one goes about developing philosophical literacy. He claims that the willingness to go public with one's thoughts is itself what philosophy is about. He suggests that the best method for teaching philosophy to the beginning student is what he calls the public model. The public model is based on the legacy of Socrates who engages others in dialogue in order to get people to publically defend their positions. Students through the practice of defending their position in the public arena are forced to be more self-reflective about their positions and justifications. Students are encouraged to clarify their concepts, uncover linguistic confusions and make conceptual distinctions. All this helps them acquire the psychological skill of critical self-regulation of their thought. Miller notes that it is this skill that is at the heart of what the professional philosophers mean by philosophizing. So, to become

philosophically literate is to develop the ability to become self-reflective about and to critically scrutinize one's thinking processes.

Philosophy is more of a means than an end. To become philosophically literate is to develop the ability to think through arguments and to push concepts and beliefs further to see how they cash-out in the end.

There is yet more to developing philosophical literacy in students. Howe (1988) observes that writing cannot be disentangled from reasoning. To learn how to write in a critical and self-reflective manner is to become philosophically literate. It is to develop the ability to clearly and concisely write one's thoughts and do so in an orderly and reasoned manner.

Reading is a gateway intellectual activity. Learning to read philosophy is an important first step in learning philosophy. Reading passages aloud in the classroom along with a running commentary can be instructive. Miller says that 'such a procedure makes the teacher's critical reading skills publicly available for students to notice and assimilate.' A public reading of philosophy does not leave the 'learning-to-read-philosophy' to chance. Having critical reading skills is part of being philosophically literate.

The above account of philosophical literacy, often called the critical thinking skills approach, is incomplete because it presupposes that philosophy has no content matter. To complete the picture we must add knowledge of the ideas and concerns of past and present philosophers, knowledge of the history of great ideas. Or as Gutting (1996) humorously portrays it: "'Dr. Jones, does God exist?' 'Well, Descartes thought so, but Hume had his doubts.'" Thus, to develop philosophical literacy is to develop critical thinking ability and knowledge of the history of ideas.

3. My worry is not that I do not provide fertile enough ground to enable students to develop philosophical literacy, but that I do not have the most appropriate measure of its achievement.

I use three multiple choice (MC) exams and one written assignment (WA) to measure the degree to which students have developed philosophical literacy. Each exam is worth 25% of the final grade, and the WA is worth 25% as well. Each MC exam consists of 50 questions. Each test covers a third of the semester. The WA is basically a take home essay examination. I provide students with a list of questions based on the assigned readings. Since the primary assessment tool is the MC exam, the worry is that it does not precisely measure the achievement of philosophical literacy.

When I initially began thinking about writing this paper, I

intended to claim that MC exams adequately measure philosophical literacy. However, in the course of focusing in on what philosophical literacy is I have come to the realization that my original position is less defensible than I had supposed.

To be honest with myself I think that a considerable part of my motivation for defending MC exams was self-serving. After all I am comfortable with and wish not to disturb my classroom examination practices. MC exams are an expedient method of assessment, quick and easy to grade. All one has to do to grade them is run the answer sheets through the scantron machine, a ten minute process. The teaching load at Middlesex County College (MCC) is heavy, five sections per semester. On average there are 25 students in each class. So the total number of students that I teach is 125. In comparison with MC exams to grade 125 in-class essay exams takes hours rather than minutes. The WA in my philosophy course takes me three to four weeks to grade.

Besides expediency and practicality how did I arrive at the position that MC exams are a suitable enough measure to test competence in and comprehension of philosophy? For most of my academic career I had taught psychology courses. All of my collegiate teaching experiences were confined to teaching low level, survey-type psychology courses, primarily one course--introductory psychology. The traditional method of assessment in those courses has been the MC exam. One would be hard pressed to

find a teacher at MCC who doesn't test introductory psychology students in this way. In addition, when I was an undergraduate student at Rutgers U. I was tested with MC exams in my introductory psychology class. Out of force of habit I continued the testing practice I was most familiar and comfortable with.

I have had a mid-career change in teaching assignments. It was during my last sabbatical that I returned to graduate school to study philosophy. When I first started teaching philosophy my knowledge of it was quite thin. I had next to no experience in taking or teaching undergraduate philosophy courses. I thought philosophical literacy only consisted of the study of the history of great ideas. If this were so, then the MC exam would be a suitable method of assessment.

My impression of the typical MCC student contributed to my inclination to use MC exams. Many students at MCC are rather unfamiliar with rigorous academic practices. In general, their norms of literacy are less well developed than traditional college students. In addition to attending MCC practically all students hold a job during the course of a semester. I have surveyed my students and found that they spend on average 15-20 hours per week working, with a substantial minority working 35-40 hours. For those who work such long hours it is about as much as they can manage to follow your lecture and see things when you point them out. Working is a tremendous burden and reduces the time they

could devote to academics. So my expectations were that the achievement of some modest cognitive goals would constitute success enough. Since the students at MCC are for the most part getting their first exposure to philosophy in my introductory level course it would seem to me that I should be very careful to provide them with elementary philosophical information. My academic standards for teaching philosophy were set rather lower. I reasoned that MC exams would be compatible with this sort of standard for this sort of student.

There is a story in the introductory section of 'The Academic Crisis of the Community College' by McGrath and Spear (1991) that I find to be pertinent to my point here. The story is about Spears' experience when handing back mid-term examination papers. Most students did exceedingly poorly. There was a wide gap between the quality of the students' submissions and what the professor thinks of as college-level work. Most papers were less than 100 words long. Little care was taken in packaging the exam, i.e., the appearances of the submissions were sloppy. Often, key words were spelled wrong, e.g., phylosopy. On occasion even the names of authors of the articles upon which the exam was based were misspelled. The topic of the articles was abortion. Rather than analyzing the authors views on abortion students often ignored them and gave their own opinions, or they would summarize one article and then summarize the other without as much as an attempt at a comparison of the authors' views. One student just copied the

editorial introductions of the articles from the anthology. This description rings true. I have had more than my share of similar experiences, which have contributed to my views on the academic readiness and potential of a substantial portion of MCC students.

Another reason for my low academic expectations are the attitudes of many students toward the discipline of philosophy. They are a real impediment. Many students find philosophy to be a useless mental exercise. Its constant quibbling, doubting and dialectics are construed as just word games. Since philosophy offers few definitive answers, students often become frustrated and uncomfortable grappling with philosophical arguments. They conflate the political claim that everyone has a right to their own opinions with the epistemological claim that everyones' opinions are right, which leads them to the conclusion, 'Why argue?'. To get them to even consider philosophical literacy as a desirable option is a considerable struggle. So what can I hope for from students with such an attitude towards the subject? I thought not too much more than a recognition of basic philosophical issues and concepts. MC exams are just the sort of assessment technique compatible with such watered down academic standards.

However, there are positive reasons to use MC exams in assessing philosophical literacy. For example, Collins (1993), in 'Examining Philosophy: 'Choose the Best Answer', contends that to have students wrestle with genuine philosophical questions, in

writing or orally, is certainly an appropriate assessment method, but 'it need not be the only one'. MC exams can be useful as well.

But how can they be useful? Aren't MC exam questions trivial and unable to reveal the critical reasoning abilities of the student? Collins claims that a closer look at this objection might reveal that it is one that is more precisely directed against the use of bad rather than good questions. One can design questions to make the students think deeply about philosophical issues. One can design them to test whether students can make conceptual distinctions. I have spent many hours custom-designing MC questions that tightly cohere with my lecture. I believe my questions have been most challenging to the students, making them think and forcing them to make fine distinctions.

To illustrate how a MC question can test for knowledge of both fundamental philosophical concepts and conceptual distinctions consider the following:

What does Plato mean by the 'sensible world'?
1. a world that is perceived by the senses
2. a world that is reasonable to understand
3. a world that contains good judgment
4. both 1 and 2

This question tests for the student's knowledge of Plato's circumscribed use of 'sensible', and it does so with alternatives that are plausible on the ordinary understanding of that word. Getting this question right turns on the student's understanding of

1) the conceptual distinction between the Form world and the sensible world and 2) the distinction between the sensory sense of 'sensible' and the reasonable sense. [See appendix A for a wider sample of my custom-designed MC questions.]

MC exams not only test for knowledge of fundamental philosophical concepts and conceptual distinctions, but they function as diagnostic tools. When reviewing MC exams discussions with the students on the merits of the alternative choices can sharpen their critical thinking abilities and focus their attention on conceptual distinctions.

Since MC exams ask more questions than essay exams do they allow the professor to test a wider domain of the course material. Thus, Howe (1988) points out, essay exams can limit the students' opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned.

Howe also contends that performance on MC exams has predictive validity, i.e., MC test scores correlate with and are predictive of performance on other assessment methods. In a comment that raised my eyebrows Howe astutely observes, 'If fixed-response testing is invalid, then philosophy departments would be hard pressed to justify using measures such as the Graduate Record Exam in making admissions decisions.'

Taking this cue from Howe, I decided to investigate whether my

MC exams have any predictive validity. I have found that in my philosophy classes in the fall of 96' scores on MC exams were moderately predictive of performance on the WA. The following table shows that there is a moderately positive correlation between student scores on each of their MC exams and their scores on the WA as well as on their total score on all MC exams combined and their scores on the WA:

Correlations Between Exam Scores and WA Scores	
MC Exam 1	.439
MC Exam 2	.582
MC Exam 3	.569
All MC Exams combined	.652

Thus, there is truth to Howe's claim that MC exams are not necessarily invalid. I suppose I have reason to believe that I was not absolutely less than rational and, perhaps, even, at least, partially justified in using MC exams. They can usefully and quite properly assess, at least, part of what is meant by philosophical literacy.

However, I am a bit suspicious about these correlations because it is possible that I was partial in grading the WAs. Student performance on the first two MC exams might have effected how I evaluated their WA.

I will have more to say about this partiality problem in the next section of the paper. However, for now, this partiality problem points to a further advantage of MC exams. They avoid the partiality that may occur in grading essay exams, since the student

grade doesn't depend on the professor's opinions of her. In addition, because essay exams can take hours or days to grade one's consistency in grading may unravel, but by the very nature of MC exams this isn't an issue.

4. In all the articles I have read in preparation for this paper there is universal agreement that some sort of writing assessment--either an essay exam or written paper--is the most natural method to measure the achievement of philosophical literacy. There can be no substitute for written assignments. Indeed, it now seems counter-intuitive to me to even suggest that essay exams or written papers are not the best nor most appropriate nor most trustworthy test for and of philosophical literacy.

Earlier I have pointed to one advantage of using MC questions--that through sheer numbers they can test an entire domain of the course in comparison with essay questions which test a more limited scope. However, if the professed purpose of teaching philosophy is less the learning of **facts** and more the cultivation of a method of thinking, then testing students on the entire domain of the course misses the point. Indeed, on occasion it may be counterproductive. Sometimes I have felt the pressure to cover all the **facts** that are on the forthcoming MC exam. So I found myself hurriedly and mechanically 'covering the material' and not engaging in a proper philosophical analysis.

We have seen that my MC exams have moderate predictive validity. Nevertheless, Howe is right to say that predictive validity is not the only consideration in judging the suitability of an exam. To possess information about philosophy without possessing 'the ability to engage in its basic activities with a reasonable degree of skill' (Miller, 1995) is not to be fully philosophically literate. Essay exams force students to become 'player-literate' or, at least, reveal whether students are or are not so. Howe (1988) mentions that the problem with MC questions is that they are fixed-responses. They cannot capture the students' ability to construct arguments or offer criticisms or develop new insights. They cannot gauge the novelty or creativity of the students' thinking. Writing samples can do this directly. It is hard to tell from MC exams alone whether a student has become 'player-literate' or is merely 'viewer-literate'. A student may be able to recognize what Plato means by the 'sensible world' without being able to publically or privately defend a philosophical claim. MC exams are not a fine-grained enough tool, whereas essay exams and WAs are, if designed properly.

When I had mistakenly believed that philosophy was the history of great ideas I thought that MC exams were sufficient to assess student comprehension and competence in philosophy. I still think that they are useful and proper in testing this in so far as what is meant by this is 'viewer-literacy'. However, I have become increasingly uncomfortable with their use as the primary assessment

tool. This is because they leave me with a feeling of emptiness. There is a question and a student answer, but something is missing. What is the actual relationship between the two? I have created custom-designed MC questions that tightly cohere with my lecture and seem very challenging to the students, but it is not apparent to me what is actually occurring in the student's mind during the exam. And that is what should count most. There is no direct visible link between the students' thinking and the lead markings on the scantron sheet. There is a supposed link, but I feel lately that the link is too indirect and not complete enough for me. The truth of this insufficiency has been gnawing away at me, disturbing me, for quite some time now, and writing this paper has given me the opportunity to confront myself with it. Needless to say, it is time to alter the mix of assessment mechanisms I employ to test for philosophical literacy.

However, before I present the alterations of my assessment tools, there is a bit more to say about essay exams. It is a good policy to be mindful not only of the advantages of using them, but also of some disadvantages. With a little forethought the disadvantages can be minimized.

There is the matter of grading them. The moral imperative in grading any sort of exam is to follow the principle of strict impartiality. As mentioned earlier, it may be difficult to maintain one's impartiality in grading essay exams. Sometimes,

whether consciously or nonconsciously one's previous assessment of the individual student, whether based on classroom participation or past test performances, may effect the grading of her writing sample. This is a flaw, but not a fatal one. It can be easily remedied by grading writing samples blindly. Read the paper first, and look at who wrote it later.

Edwards (1996) points out that the problem with any exam is that it 'only test[s] how much a student can remember on a particular day, and how well she performs under the pressure of a time constraint.' And since philosophy is not a matter of the students learning **facts**, but learning, as she puts it, 'a way of thinking about themselves, their thoughts, and their world in a reflective and critical but open-minded way', then any exams, even essay exams, are just not suitable to this goal.

Edwards replaces in-class essay exams with out-of-class critical essay papers based on weekly reading assignments. This method is less dependent on a student's memory on any given test day, and it loosens the artificial time constraints of in-class exams. One of her students commented at the end of her course, 'I learned so much this way because I found that the writing of the papers made me think more critically about the topics.' She believes that students were forced to spend more time grappling with the reading material in order to comprehend it. An additional advantage of this method is that students were better prepared for

classroom discussions because they had already done much thinking about the topics.

What is particularly useful about a student's writing sample is that it is a suspended piece of work that itself provides the opportunity and means to teach philosophical literacy. One should discuss the writing sample with the student to guide and monitor her progress. It can be very useful to go over drafts with her and ask her questions of intent in order to clear up any ambiguities or confusions. It can be useful to show her areas that need more thinking through as well as areas that are especially well constructed. Simply, it is an opportunity to make suggestions, instructive criticisms, or commendations, if warranted. Now when a student rewrites her draft she is more focused-in on and better informed about both its strong and weak points and its direction. I agree with Miller (1995) when he says that rewriting should be the norm because there is no substitution for repetition and practice. The point is that through repetition and practice the student effectively learns how to write philosophically.

5. To teach philosophical literacy requires that much classroom time be spent on the public reading and interpreting of philosophical passages. It requires much classroom time be spent on rigorous, self-reflective public debate. It requires an intensive writing and rewriting of essays. These activities demand that students be given individualized attention and instruction.

So, to teach philosophy in a manner which is consistent with its identity and authenticity is to teach it in a manner which is intensive, demanding and time-consuming. Edwards alludes to this point when she says, in the context of continually refining her course, that she is trying to find 'ways to reduce the amount of grading this method [intensive writing approach] requires'. Miller raises an additional point that whether teaching philosophy can conform to the demands of such an individualized model depends on institutional arrangements.

Taking Miller's point seriously, to pick a set of methods for assessing philosophical literacy is not just a straightforward matter of choosing the most effective and appropriate ones, but of choosing the most effective and appropriate ones given the institutional arrangements that one is subject to. The logic of my course load and student load, both of which are quite heavy (as mentioned earlier), is quiet compelling. It imposes limits on the amount of time, effort and energy I have to devote to implementing the individualized model needed to develop philosophical literacy. It was constraining enough so as to persuade me in the past to adopt a primary assessment method that was expedient, but less than ideal. However, as I have mentioned above, it seems quite clear to me that it is time to change my primary method of assessing philosophical literacy. It is time to use writing samples and classroom participation more and MC questions less.

6. I intend to alter the mix of assessment mechanisms I employ so that they will be more consistent with the identity of philosophy. I shall do so in the following way. Anywhere between 20 - 25% of the final grade will reflect the scores students earn on each of three exams. Each exam will consist of 20 - 30 MC questions and 2 or 3 essay questions.

Given the institutional arrangements that I function within I cannot totally discard the use of MC questions. The amount of time that I have available to grade exams is limited by the sheer number of sections that I teach and the sheer numbers of students I am responsible for educating. Exams with MC questions are still the most practical assessment tools in this regard, since they are quick and easy to grade.

Their value does not rely only on their expediency. They can be useful for assessing, at least, one part of philosophical literacy--'viewer literacy'. Thus, they can be useful as long as they are not the sole means to assess philosophical literacy. They can make students think deeply about philosophical issues and force them to make conceptual distinctions. They can test for knowledge of the history of ideas, and they can have moderately positive predictive validity.

Moreover, exams with MC questions can be helpful to students that do not possess good writing skills, yet who are intelligent

students who diligently study and adequately comprehend the philosophical material. To assess students solely on their written work gives an undue advantage to students who are good writers. While it is true that both a large part of knowing something is being able to express it clearly and concisely and that thinking and writing are intimately connected, it is, also, true that some students with poor writing skills are not necessarily students who have not comprehended the material. In these cases to assess the student solely on her writing samples would be to assess her by a device which does not take full advantage of her intellectual strengths. This would not be very charitable to the student.

Of course, to make my assessment mechanisms more in line with a more complete or direct or truer test of philosophical literacy I have added essay questions to my exams. My comments in section four attest to the fact that I have been painfully aware of the need for and desiderative of more writing samples from the students in order to more appropriately and properly test their developing philosophical literacy. With the use of these essay questions and the use of an out-of-class WA (to be mentioned below) I shall feel more comfortable with my assessment techniques. I will feel that they are more legitimate and authentic measures of philosophical literacy than the measures I had been employing. I am more confident that I will be able to gain a greater assess to the students' critical thinking abilities. I will be able to see more directly whether they have been thoughtful in their approach to the

coursework. I will be able to see more directly their ability to order and develop their thoughts, their ability to reason well, and their ability to be self-reflective. Not only will I be able to see more directly their comprehension of the issues and topics in the history of ideas, but I can gauge the novelty and creativity of their thinking as well. In short, I will be able to see whether they have become 'player-literate' in philosophy.

Anywhere between 20 - 25% of the final grade will reflect student scores on an out-of-class WA. I intend to go over drafts of the WA with students. This will serve, at least, two functions: a) it will give me an opportunity to make suggestions and offer instructive criticisms to students on a one-on-one basis so that they can be in a better position to perform a successful rewrite of their papers and b) it, itself, will provide an additional opportunity to teach philosophical literacy.

The out-of-class WA offers a different sort of opportunity to earn a grade than the exams mentioned above and the class participation that will be mentioned below. One advantage that the out-of-class WA offers for students is that it liberates them from the artificial constraints that in-class exams impose. With this assessment device students are not limited to what they can remember during an 80 minute time-span on one particular day as they are by in-class exams. Another advantage is that students will likely spend more time grappling with the reading material in

order to comprehend it. In addition, the repetition and practice of rewriting drafts makes is more likely that students will effectively learn to write philosophically.

In recognition of the public model in developing philosophical literacy, anywhere between 0 - 20% of the final grade will reflect the quality of a student's participation in classroom discussions and debates.

Now, why this sliding scale? I intend to use student participation in classroom discussions and debates in a charitable way. I shall encourage students to engage in them and be supportive of their efforts to do so. I shall involve them in discussions and debates as a matter of classroom practice. I shall assess the quality of their participation. I expect a wide difference in student ability in this area. Some students may already exhibit considerable skill at publically defending their claims and in pointing out flaws in their opponents positions. They may demonstrate skill in 'thinking on their feet', so to speak. That is, they already can publically think through arguments, make adjustments and push concepts and beliefs further to see how they cash-out. Their public speaking skills may already reveal a critical and self-reflective manner of thinking. In these cases to assess the student with the maximum percentage for class participation would be to assess her by a mechanism which takes full advantage of the student's intellectual strength. Some

students may exhibit very little skill in this area. If a student shows significant improvement in her public speaking skills over the course of the semester, then she, too, can be assessed with the maximum percentage for classroom participation. If a student shows only small increments in these skills over the course of the semester, then she can be given credit for the improvement, but in a manner that reflects its proportional value. In this case to assess the student with the maximum percentage for class participation would be to assess her by a mechanism which does not take full advantage of her intellectual strength. I want to make it a practice to try to assess students by means which tap-in to their intellectual strengths. So, I shall leave to my discretion, based on the unique circumstances of each case, the precise percentage of the final grade that is based on the student's classroom participation.

However, some might point-out that it is precisely this public speaking and debating skill that is being taught. Thus, I should not be reluctant to grade students by the maximum percentage when assessing the quality of their participation in classroom discussions or, perhaps, more to the point, the lack thereof. While it is true that the willingness to go public with one's claims and arguments is, itself, what philosophy is all about, I believe that it is equally true that to force students to engage in this highly charged and highly public on-stage activity and, especially, to grade or evaluate them on it before they have the

sufficient skills to perform the task reasonably well may be pedagogically detrimental. It is more like putting the cart before the horse, but with serious academic consequences attached to this action. For many students this aspect of philosophical literacy develops over longer periods of time than one semester, especially if that one semester is the first or second semester of a student's community college career. We must bear in mind that at the introductory level and, especially, at the community college the public model is more likely to be a method to teach philosophical literacy and less likely to be a method to evaluate it.

In addition, let us put this activity in its proper perspective, which is within the context of the entire introductory philosophy course. Going public with one's arguments is just one aspect of philosophical literacy, and the assessment of public speaking and debating is just one measure of it. I shall assess the quality of the student's classroom participation. I shall not totally ignore the fact that some have engaged in it poorly or have not engaged in it at all. Nevertheless, it is preferable that students have various opportunities to earn their grades in any course. One should make it a practice to try to assess students in the most charitable way that one can and that is by means which tap-in to their intellectual strengths, not by means which do not. If they show sufficient proficiency in the development of philosophical literacy on a variety of other assessment mechanisms, I believe that it is prudent to put less weight on public speaking

and debating and more weight on these other evaluations.

I have provided assessment devices with the intent to give the student various opportunities in various ways (recognition tasks via MC questions, discussions and debates via classroom participation, and writing samples via essay questions and the WA) to earn their grades in my philosophy course. By offering students a variety of means by which they can earn a grade it is likely that, at least, one and, hopefully, more than one of the means will tap-in to a student's particular intellectual strength. This could work to the students advantage because if I could discover that one device is making clearer what the others are obscuring about the student's effort and achievement, then I can make an informed evaluation of the student's abilities that goes beyond a mere adding up of scores on exams. It will afford me the opportunity to evaluate the student more by 'the spirit of the law' and less by 'the letter of it' so to speak.

7. This investigation has forced me to take a good, hard look at my teaching practices. It has forced me to be very self-conscious of the goals that I intend to achieve in teaching philosophy. It has forced me to define the precise nature of philosophical literacy and to take a self-searching analysis of my methods of assessing it. While the conclusions that I have reached from this analysis may seem obvious this investigation is not without merit for it has forced me out of my complacency.

And, as the result of this investigation, I see more clearly what I am doing and what I am supposed to be doing when I teach philosophical literacy and assess its achievement. Since I know better what I mean to do, I can better mean what I do and better do what I mean. It is especially useful and important to be clear about what it is that one does when, as in the present case, it has serious consequences for others.

Appendix A

1. According to possible world theory possible worlds
    1. exist only as ideas in peoples' minds
    2. exist in physical space
    3. exist in the nonphysical manifold of logical space
    4. do not have any sort of existence, physical or nonphysical

This question tests for the student's knowledge of the metaphysical status of possible worlds in the context of possible world theory. Getting this question right turns on the student's understanding of what is meant by the philosophical concept possible worlds and in understanding the sense in which these supposed entities exist. Thus, the student should be able to appreciate the possibility that entities that do not exist physically or mentally could still exist, nevertheless. That is, they could be both mind-independent as well as material-independent and, yet, still exist. This question has, at least, two alternatives (1 and 4) that are plausible on the common sense understanding of what is meant by 'possible'.

2. The epistemic point of the blind man case is:
    1. true belief is a sufficient condition for knowledge
    2. truth alone is a sufficient condition for knowledge
    3. truth isn't a necessary condition for knowledge
    4. true belief is not a sufficient condition for knowledge

This question asks the students to recognize Plato's theory of knowledge and his reason for including justification as an essential component of it. Plato claims that a blind man may have successfully navigated a stretch of road, but it cannot be said that he knows the road, since he had no justification for the steps

that he had taken. His successful navigation was due to luck and not reason. Likewise, true belief is not enough for one to have knowledge. One might have arrived at that knowledge due to luck and not reason. In addition, this question requires that the student understands the meaning of 'a sufficient condition'. I consider alternatives 1 and 2 to be plausible alternatives, since they are claims many students have made themselves during my lectures on Plato's theory of knowledge.

3. Pinker uses the sentence 'Canis hominem mordet' to demonstrate that in Latin it is _____ that communicates the who-did-what-to-whom feature of language
   1. trial and error
   2. the order of words
   3. the suffix
   4. stimulus-response connections

This question tests for the student's knowledge of Chomsky's framework for the understanding of how language works. The parameters of a language are the switches that particular languages use in order to tap the principles that all languages are based upon. Getting this question right turns on the student's understanding of Chomsky's concept of parameter, its distinction from his concept of principles and its application in Latin as distinguished from its application in English. Alternative 2 is a plausible alternative since English uses this parameter. Perhaps, 1 and 4 are plausible as well. Because there is such a wide variety of different languages it is widely believed language is learned, and each one of these alternatives offers some process by which learning takes place.

4. According to Ryle to say there is a mind and a body is like saying there is a Chevy and a Ford.
   1. true 2. false

This question tests for the student's understanding of the conceptual distinction that Ryle's makes between mind and body. Getting this question right turns on the student's understanding of Ryle's criticisms of Descartes' analysis of the mind-body problem. Ryle thinks that Descartes commits a category mistake by placing both mind and body within the same category, the category of substances. For the student to get this question right she should understand Ryle's clarification of the logical status of mind. It requires the student to recognize that, on Ryle's account, the conjunctive proposition involving mind and body combines concepts that are not of the same logical type whereas the conjunctive proposition about a Chevy and a Ford does. That is, on Ryle's account mind and body are not both substances, whereas a Chevy and a Ford are both autos. Under Descartes' conception, which is the common sense one, the conjunctive proposition 'there is a mind and body' combines concepts that are of the same logical type as the conjunctive proposition 'there is a Chevy and a Ford' does. Thus, if the student doesn't understand Ryle's point, then '(1) true' is a plausible alternative.

5. This swan is white.
That swan is white.
Every swan we've ever seen is white.
We've never heard of any swans that aren't white.
Therefore, all swans are white.

The above argument
1. is valid
2. is deductive
3. is sound
4. is inductive
5. 1, 2 and 3

Getting this question right turns on the student's recognizing an inductive argument and its conceptual distinction from a deductive one. She must be aware that the terms valid and sound do not technically apply to inductive arguments.

Answers to MC questions.

page 8 (1)
1. (3)
2. (4)
3. (3)
4. (2)
5. (4)

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Literary Magazines at Community Colleges: Their Forms and Impact

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May 29, 1997

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May 29, 1997
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Literary Magazines at Community Colleges: Their Forms and Impact

The task of this paper is to inquire about the forms and impact of literary magazines at selected community colleges in New Jersey, as a forerunner for the possible establishment of such a magazine at Bergen Community College. Further, this study is directed to the impact such magazines might have on the humanities faculties at community colleges because traditionally humanities faculties have been most involved with, and affected by the publication of literary magazines on their campuses.

1. The Need For Vitality Within One's Discipline

This inquiry began as a response to questions raised during the 1994-95 Middle States Self-Evaluation Study undertaken at Bergen Community College. 1/ In turn, the questions were deepened by THE ACADEMIC CRISIS OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE, by Dennis McGrath and Martin B. Spear, read in preparation for this Mid-Career Seminar. 2/

The 1994-95 Bergen Community College Middle States Self-Evaluation Study made a recommendation that "greater efforts must be made to recognize, honor, and reward the significant numbers of faculty involved in varied scholarly and professional

activities" (p.58). By professional activities, the report distinguished discipline-related activities from broader pedagogical activities. "Faculty development activities must not focus only upon the immediate goal of teaching effectiveness and pedagogy but also upon the longer term goals of disciplinary competency, excellence, and renewal" (p.58). The report found that the activities currently supported by institutional funds and energies include "Food for Thought, a series of monthly 'lunch' meetings where faculty from across disciplines meet to discuss pedagogical concerns; monthly workshops targeting special areas of interest; in-service courses; a newsletter; and self-development and improvement workshops" and particularly cited Partners in Learning, where the "focus of many faculty development efforts is classroom research... [aimed] at understanding how students learn with the goal of improving student learning" (p.51). This disparity in interpretations of what constitutes faculty growth or renewal is echoed in the report's finding that "42% [of the faculty] are generally dissatisfied with the college's support of scholarly activities and research" (p.57) and state that "publishing and professional performance activities were undertaken primarily for personal satisfaction and to contribute to the academic field of study, while conference participation and professional seminars were undertaken to remain current in the field and to improve classroom performance" (p.56). The recommendation of the Self-Study that faculty development activities focus on discipline rather than pedagogy exclusively underscores the need of faculties to remain connected to their disciplines.

The need to remain vital in one's discipline is also affirmed in THE ACADEMIC CRISIS OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE. In that study, McGrath and Spear suggest that faculty at community colleges see themselves, and by and large are seen as "an

association of independent journeymen" (p.147). Because faculty are viewed as sole workers, very often levels of stress or dissatisfaction that they might exhibit are perceived as personal rather than community problems. McGrath and Spear argue that "were faculty understood not so much from under the skin, but culturally, their real situation would be better displayed—the overall shape of their professional lives, how they understand their professional role, and the way they are influenced by the organizational culture they both share and shape" (p. 144). Particularly, the problem of "burnout" is perceived, according to McGrath and Spear as the problem of the individual teacher who might be offered workshops in "sensitivity training, stress management, personal development" (p.143). Even if "burnout" is not identified as a problem among a faculty, very often there is a great deal of effort put into making the faculty more "effective" teachers since the centerpiece of a community college faculty is their teaching rather than their scholarship. However, McGrath and Spear show that workshops that focus on improving teaching often operate on "the assumption that pedagogy can be meaningfully separated from the various disciplines, that teachers might be experts in teaching and learning understood generically" (p. 146). Such "learning packages" as well as workshops in using technology in teaching have been "the primary focus of in-service sessions and curriculum development workshops for the past twenty years" (p.146).

This perception of community college professors as individuals not doing enough to improve their teaching styles is the beginning of a slippery slope into unacceptable levels of malaise among faculties. McGrath and Spear argue that faculty might function more productively and happily if they were grouped, perceived, and socialized more along discipline line. They argue that "among community college faculties, unlike university

faculties, social organization does not follow the academic/intellectual organization... [and this deficit has] stripped away any intellectual norms that might bind them together" (pp. 151-52).

It could be argued that faculty in humanties areas are affected by this disassociation from their discipline in particular ways. In studies that McGrath and Spear use, they find that liberal arts faculties exhibit a "pronounced" inferiority complex, and that "teachers in vocational programs don't communicate the same sense of not having made it" (p. 140) as those in liberal arts faculties do. One possible reason might be that "while liberal arts faculty typically see students for only one semester, perhaps teaching 'service courses' for vocational students or introductory courses for which there are no corresponding advanced courses, their colleagues in career programs have much more sustained mentor-like relations with students" (p. 142). But a far more intriguing reason for this lack of a sense of well-being might be found in McGrath and Spear's observation that liberal arts faculty, many of whom were trained in and to a certain extent *live* by the written **word**, exist in college cultures that are primarily oral, for "teachers are not expected [in community college cultures] to write; few do. More important is that exchanges among community college faculty are not characteristically written. They are spoken, experienced, shared, [and] released from the intellectual norms and social constraints of writing practices, the faculty culture 'concretizes.' Teachers grow deeply suspicious of 'abstract theory,' and turn to experience, to classroom practice, as the only things really worth talking about" (p. 152). Rather than that, McGrath and Spear see the need for a new faculty culture in which "schools work to overcome the isolation of teachers by creating a collegial environment which provides opportunities for staff

interaction, and helps teachers view their colleagues as sources of ideas... and shared professional norms" (p.153).

One possible antidote to the malaise of isolation from discipline that both the Bergen Middle States Self-Study and McGrath and Spear find might be the existence of literary magazines connected to community colleges. At least for some liberal arts faculty whose disciplines involved them in the written word, such magazines might foster a vital link to what made some of them enter this profession in the first place.

As some of us at Bergen discuss the viability of beginning some form of on-going literary activity or journal, it is helpful to describe some existing journals at nearby community colleges.

2. Two Models of Literary Magazines Centered at Community Colleges

There are two journals with very different purposes that I would like to descibe. Both seem to have created a vital link to the discipline of writing on their campuses. They are the JOURNAL OF NEW JERSEY POETS, whose editorial board is comprised of faculty from the County College of Morris, and THE KELSEY REVIEW, sponsored by Mercer County Community College.

THE JOURNAL OF NEW JERSEY POETS

The JOURNAL OF NEW JERSEY POETS is a biannual publication, which prints poems, short essays about poets and poetry, and artwork. The JOURNAL invites "previously unpublished manuscripts by poets who live or who have lived or worked in

New Jersey." 3/ In the copies I have looked at, the JOURNAL publishes around 25 poems in each issue, along with an essay and five to ten sketches or photographs.

In a conversation with the Editor of the JOURNAL, Sander Zulauf, I learned that the JOURNAL's first eleven volumes were published by Fairleigh Dickinson University in Madison, New Jersey. Mr. Zulauf, known both as a poet and producer of poetry readings in the area, was first approached in 1976, and in 1989 agreed to become the Editor of the JOURNAL, following a commitment of support by his college, the County College of Morris. CCM provided modest release time to Mr. Zulauf and originally based the JOURNAL in the budget of the English Department. Later, the JOURNAL budget was transferred to the Center for Teaching Excellence, where it still remains. The Center for Teaching Excellence is a committee under the guidance of the Vice President for Academic Affairs, and has a Director who serves at the pleasure of the Vice President for 1 or 2 years. The Center provides conferences, newsletters, mini-grants for special purposes and other faculty enrichment programs. Currently, it provides $3000 for the publication of 1000 issues of roughly a 70-page issue of the JOURNAL, biannually. Subscriptions to the magazine provide about one half of that sum and are fed into a college fund which cannot be used at the discretion of the Editorial Board of the JOURNAL, but rather, must "re-pay" a part of the $3000 budget. The JOURNAL is printed by The Print Shop at CCM, which delivers its services at approximately 1/5 the cost of a commercial printer.

There are four editors of the JOURNAL who vote, one vote per person on each submission, with the result that no one editor has sway, and that the JOURNAL, therefore, represents more varied tastes than if one editor had final decision on what

poems are published. The Editorial Board decided not to permit submission by members of the CCM faculty in order to avoid the appearance of a vanity press, and to establish a professional level of standard in publishing decisions. Evidently this decision did not diminish its pool of submissions by much, for the JOURNAL receives about 1000 poems per issue to consider. The Board also decided to maintain a local flavor for the JOURNAL. At one point in its funding history, it had been the recipient of New Jersey state grants, and, therefore, had to require that poets who submit work live or work in New Jersey, but when those grants ceased, the editors decided to maintain the identity as a local journal because the editors felt that, without university resources, such as a university press, they could not compete with major university-sponsored journals, even though several JOURNAL readers believe that it is "too good to be regional." 4/

A series of questions about the JOURNAL of NEW JERSEY POETS was distributed to the Humanities Faculty at the County College of Morris, and 12 were sent back. A copy of the questions is attached. The questions were about the impact of the journal on the humanities faculty, no matter how they interacted with the JOURNAL.

Seven of the 12 reported that they read the JOURNAL regularly and 3 more who did not read it regularly said that it was not easy to get copies of it. One respondent suggested that it was "not publicized enough." The answer of the 3 who do not read the JOURNAL regularly implies that they would do so if they could access the JOURNAL more easily. Therefore, 10 out of 12 respondents show a high degree of interest in reading the JOURNAL regularly.

In answer to the question, "Do you and your colleagues ever discuss what you read in the JOURNAL," 8 out of 12 say that they have discussed work in the JOURNAL.

with colleagues. So, for a substantial majority of respondents, the JOURNAL contributes to the vitality of their connection with their discipline in an on-going way, both by keeping them connected to some of the fine work of New Jersey poets and essayists, and also by serving as a conversation centerpiece with colleagues.

The question which elicited the most voluble response was the last: "In what ways do you think that the Humanities area benefits from having a literary journal associated, in some way, with your college?" Only 2 respondents said nothing, and the responses of the other 10 were praises, most at some length, of the connection of the JOURNAL and the college. For example, "I think it's wonderful that a community college supports such as significant, professional endeavor. It is to our credit." And, "It's a wonderful vehicle for poets to share their work. I'm proud that CCM is associated with it." Further, "It demonstrates to serious poets that CCM is concerned about the knowledgeable about their work. We are endorsing their art & providing measures & outlets for it," and "we champion, support and celebrate good writing. What else are we here for?" Other respondents noted the "prestige" and "recognition" that the JOURNAL gave to County College of Morris, through the editors of the JOURNAL, who are also professors at the College. One respondent noted that the JOURNAL's association with the College, "keeps us on our toes."

In reflecting on the emphasis so often placed on issues of "burnout," and low morale, most especially, as McGrath and Spear suggest, among Humanities faculty, it seems that the opposite of "burnout" is something that "keeps us on our toes," and something that can elicit the response, "Why else are we here."

THE KELSEY REVIEW

The Kelsey Review is published annually by Mercer County Community College and solicits manuscripts "exclusively from people living and working in Mercer County, New Jersey." 5/ It prints poems, prose, sketches, and photographs, and in the issues I have seen, which run about 80 pages, the organizing principle seems to be an alternation between a prose piece and a poem, with interspersed sketches or photographs.

In a conversation with the Editor of the Kelsey Review, Dr. Robin Schore, I learned that the current Kelsey Review is a revival of an old scholarly journal, first funded (and named after) a Mr. Kelsey who owned the Trenton Times. It briefly reappeared in 1978, but was then let drop until 1988, when it was revitalized by a dean as a publication for the work of Mercer County College faculty and staff. The editorial board discovered, however, that there was not enough production from their pool of about 120 Mercer County College faculty and staff to keep the review going. The board first attempted to create an in-house one year/ in-county the next year plan, but eventually decided to extend submission rights to all Mercer County residents.

The KELSEY REVIEW is funded both by the New Jersey Council on the Arts in the name of a grant from the Mercer County Cultural and Heritage Commission, and by Mercer County College. The Cultural and Heritage Commission grants $1200, which covers the commercial printing costs. Mercer County College provides Dr. Schore with

modest release time and pays for a staff member to layout and proof the copy of the REVIEW.

The decision to make the REVIEW a "home-grown" publication was not required by any funding source, but rather was an editorial decision made to distinguish the REVIEW from others. Because the REVIEW is listed in various small press listings, the editors occasionally get submission requests from writers as far away as Alaska, Texas, and Virginia, and although the editors enjoy such recognition, they believe that they need to preserve their Mercer County identity. The editorial board consists of four editors, two who read poetry, and two who read prose.

A series of questions (attached) was distributed to the Humanities faculty at Mercer County Community College. Seven were returned. Four of those respondents read and discuss what they read in the REVIEW. Those who answered that they did not read the REVIEW say that they "don't have time" to read it or that they "don't read short stuff much." Faculty at Mercer County Community College are allowed to submit their own work, but few of the respondents do. The comments accompanying their response were varied. "I've thought about it." "No time," and "I get paid for what I write. I don't do freebies" were some of the responses. As with the County College of Morris surveys, question 7 ("In what ways do you think that the Humanities area benefits from having a literary journal associated, in some way, with your college?") caused the most voluble response. Several respondents believe that the REVIEW gives "prestige," "recognition," and "name-value" to the humanities area of the College. Another says that the REVIEW "reflects the best efforts of the humanities area." Another suggests that

specifically for those who teach writing , "it demonstrates that we (and our graduates and associates) can do what we teach, not just talk about it."

The response that we "can do what we teach" reminds me of the response by the CCM faculty member that championing good writing is why we are here. Both responses locate the vitality of teaching in the discipline of writing, which is the precise connection that both the BCC Middle States Self-Evaluation and McGrath and Spear seek among teaching faculties of excellence.

A Literary Magazine at Bergen Community College

Sweet and Bitter Fruit was published annually at Bergen from 1985 to 1990. A total of nine issues were published. It published poetry, prose, and essays by Bergen faculty and was edited by Dr. Mia Anderson. As editor, she found difficulties similar to those described by Dr. Schore, that is, it became an exhausting task to sustain the magazine from the "fruit" of the faculty at Bergen alone. In the last few years of its existence, Dr. Anderson spent some time soliciting material from writers, and even with those efforts, there were many times when she found herself short on material that was of a quality for publication in a college journal. In addition, she found that she was frequently turning to the same writers and, therefore facilitating a vanity publication despite her wishes. The magazine ceased publication in 1991 when Dr. Anderson became heavily involved in the New Jersey Project and could not devote time to the magazine.

I distributed a questionnaire (attached) to the Humanities faculty at Bergen, and received 12 responses. Only five of the respondents were familiar with Sweet and Bitter

Fruit; the others came to Bergen after the cessation of the magazine. These five found that the material available for publication was not "appropriate" or that the limited distribution (the magazine was distributed to Humanites faculty on campus, and copies were available in the Humanities office, but no further distribution was made) did not "justify the efforts of the people [who wrote for it]." It was also considered a "vanity press designed to give 'publication' to anyone and everyone." However, the majority of respondents said that they would welcome the establishment of a literary journal where faculty work such as stories, poems, reviews, and parts of novels would be encouraged but not guaranteed publication.

The next few questions were designed to discover if faculty had participated in a Faculty Development project held in 1995-96, a Writer's Workshop, a faculty group of writers who met periodically to critique each other's work, whether fiction or non-fiction. Only two of the respondents had participated in the Workshop, and others who did not participate, cited restriction of time as the reason they did not.

The next questions asked whether participating in an on-line writer's group with an end toward an on-line "publication" of creative work would be as useful as in-person meetings of a workshop and "hard," meaning 'paper' publication. Almost all respondents felt that a workshop needed to have face-to-face contact to be truly supportive and that "hard" publications had more value, respectability or "weight" than an on-line publication could have.

Yet, it seems that the commitment of time, both for those who would edit such a magazine and those who would participate in an "in-person" workshop, the goal of which might be to produce a literary journal, is impossible to make. So, undaunted by the lack of

enthusiasm for experimenting with an on-line workshop and/or publication, I had conversations with Dr. Michael Redmond, Dean of Arts and Humanities, about such a future possibility.

Dr. Redmond cited President Winn's very determined commitment to move rapidly ahead in technology-supported ventures at Bergen. Bergen has had a Web page with several links since February, 1997, has 8 terminals connected with the internet in the library and has plans to connect all labs to the internet. The eventual goal is to make it possible for virtually all computer-users at Bergen to have network connection. At present, Bergen has an external server, but Dr. Redmond believes that it is only a matter of months before Bergen provides its own private server. Now, most private servers are universities, government agencies, or businesses. However, if Bergen became a private server, it would be possible to develop a 'discussion list', where a faculty member or group could 'own' a list which anyone could subscribe to. For example, the list might be called 'literary works in progress," and a workshop group of Bergen writers might subscribe to it regularly, sharing their own work in progress, as in any workshop. The 'owners' of the list could admit to the discussion comments from any other non-Bergen subscriber, but could also 'moderate' the discussion by, simply put, censuring, any contributions that the 'owners' did not feel contributed appropriately to the discussion. In such a way, Bergen faculty writers could get exposure of their work and support for it even when they did not have time to commit themselves to an in-person workshop that held regular meetings. Further, we might follow the example of Slate, the Kinsley journal now on-line, in which quite famous scholars such as Ronald Dworkin, or well-known journalists such as Andrew Sullivan, carry on debates on a variety of current

issues. Slate has many on-going discussions, and periodically posts its "compost," which is comprised of some "finished" works for a set number of days. "Compost" then would become the equivalent of a journal.

Conclusion

It seems evident that faculty at community colleges have a great need to remain connected with their disciplines for many reasons. As McGrath and Spear find, they are not generally socialized according to their discipline interests. It seems also that those who teach in humanities or liberal arts areas, might feel the lack of discipline connection in particularly acute ways. Again, as McGrath and Spear point out, most humanities faculty teach introductory courses and do not enter the mysteries of the discipline with their students in the way that those who teach the students' vocational subject do. Also, community college cultures do not encourage communication by writing, but rather foster an oral, anecdotal environment. Something needs to be done to foster a connection between teaching writing to students and writing, or at least reading publishable writing of peers. What I suggest here will do little for most faculty at community colleges, but I think it will do a great deal for a few, and perhaps it will do enough to warrant the experiment of beginning an on-line workshop and journal, in the forms of a "discussion list" and a "compost."

Footnotes

1/ The 1994-95 Middle States Self-Study of Bergen Community College. All quotes from this text will be introduced as such in the text and followed by the appropriate page number.

2/ Dennis McGrath and Martin B. Spear, The Academic Crisis of the Community College, New York, 1991. Henceforth all quotes from this text will be introduced as such in the text and followed by the appropriate page number(s).

3/ Journal of NJ poets, Vol. XVII, No. 2, ed. Sander Zulauf.

4/ Conversation with Sander Zulauf, April 1, 1997.

5/ The Kelsey Review, Fall 1996, Volume X, ed. Robin Schore.

6/ Conversation with Robin Schore, April 2, 1997.

7/ Conversation with Mia Anderson, Feb. 9, 1997.

8/ Conversation with Dean Redmond, April 18, 1997.

To the Humanities Faculty at Mercer County Community College

I hope that answering these questions will take just a few minutes of your time. I plan to use the results of this questionnaire in a paper I am writing for the Princeton mid-Career Fellowship seminar. Could you please return this to Art Schwartz by March 21. Thank you.

Bonnie MacDougall
Humanities Division
Bergen Community College

1. Do you read the Kelsey Review on a regular basis?

2. If you don't, why not?

3. If you don't read it on a regular basis, how often do you read it?

4. Do you and your colleagues ever discuss what you read in the Review?

5. If you see writing as one of your professional activities, have you ever submitted work to the Kelsey Review?

6. If you have submitted work to it, do you think that you received the kind of reading and feedback you would expect to receive from a professional journal?

7. In what ways do you think that the Humanities area benefits from having a literary journal associated, in some way, with your college

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Dear Colleagues: I hope it will take you just a few minutes to answer these questions. I will use the results of the questions for a paper for the Mid-Career Fellowship Seminar at Princeton, and thank you for your help. Could you return this form to my mailbox in A-335 by April 1? Thanks, Bonnie MacDougall

1. Why was Sweet and Bitter Fruit ultimately not able to sustain itself, and what was your feeling about that journal?

2. Could you indicate your response to the establishment of a literary journal where faculty work such as stories, poems, reviews, and parts of novels would be encouraged but not guaranteed publication.

   a. I would welcome such a journal _____

   b. I would be indifferent to such a journal _____

3. Did you participate in or were you interested in participating in the Faculty Development Writer's Workshop that met in 1995-96?

4. If you were interested in participating in the Writer's Workshop, but did not, why not?

5. Do you think that an on-line writer's group would be as useful as a writer's workshop that met in person, and could you explain your response.

6. Do you think that an on-line "publication" of creative work or work-in-progress would be as useful as a "hard" paper publication of such work,a nd could you explain your response.

To the Humanities Faculty at the County College of Morris

I hope that answering these questions will take just a few minutes of your time. I plan to use the results of this questionnaire in a paper I am writing for the Princeton mid-Career Fellowship seminar. Could you please return this to Sara Pfaffenroth by March 21. Thank you.

Bonnie MacDougall
Humanities Division
Bergen Community College

1. Do you read the Journal of N.J. Poets on a regular basis?

2. If you don't, why not?

3. If you don't read it on a regular basis, how often do you read it?

4. Do you and your colleagues ever discuss what you read in the Journal?

5. If you see writing as one of your professional activities, have you ever submitted work to the Journal?

6. If you have submitted work to it, do you think that you received the kind of reading and feedback you would expect to receive from a professional journal?

7. In what ways do you think that the Humanities area benefits from having a literary journal associated, in some way, with your college

Clarifying Institutional Policy Toward International Students: A Community College Self-Study Model

submitted by

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Mid-Career Fellow Seminar
Prof. T. Rabb
May 20, 1997

Clarifying Institutional Policy Toward International Students: A Community College Self-Study Model

In 1982, The American Council On Education issued committee findings titled Foreign Students and Institutional Policy: Toward an Agenda for Action which pointed out that among the world's leading host countries for international students, the United States was the only country which had no centralized policy guiding the influx of such students, a situation which thus by default located policy decisions at individual educational institutions. In 1983, the Institute of International Education in New York published a report funded by the Mellon Foundation titled Absence of Decision: Foreign Students in American Colleges and Universities: A Report on Policy Formation and the Lack Thereof. In it, authors Crauford Goodwin of Duke and Michael Nacht of Harvard explored the prevailing attitudes and practices at a number of American campuses. More than a decade later, in 1995 when more than 425,000 international students attended American institutions, most community colleges, which by then were enrolling increasingly large numbers of such students, had not yet seriously addressed questions of why and how their institutions should be involved with such students. Since national policy is absent, and since most institutions have likewise not addressed policy to this topic, this paper proposes a model self-study to guide community colleges in considering such questions and formulating policy based on the study results.

In their opening pages, researchers Goodwin and Nacht defined policy as a "method of action selected from among alternatives and in light of given conditions to guide and determine present and future decisions" (vii). What they found in the course of several hundred interviews conducted with college administrators and staff members closely connected with international students

was that their definition of "policy" implied a degree of coherence and forethought which they were unable to observe at most of the institutions they visited (vii). Instead, they heard words such as questions, problems, opportunities, challenges. Colleges had been aware that an ever-growing body of international students existed, but since that number was such a small percentage of the overall student body (except in some technical/scientific fields such as engineering), there was no sense of urgency to deal with it until a tightening American economy raised taxpayers' voices about the increased costs of education. Those voices were heard by lawmakers who in turn began to commission studies exploring the economics costs and benefits of educating foreign students at public institutions such as community colleges. Even when those studies showed that the presence of foreign students actually generated jobs --100,000 jobs in 1995-- and pumped up the American economy --by $7 billion in 1995-- (Henry D7), there remained a strong anti-immigrant and anti-affirmative action backlash. During several political campaign years, this backlash fueled social concerns such as foreign students "taking the places" that should have belonged to American students, especially in the sciences, the health fields, and even athletics (Brugge 5). It is at this political and emotional stage that many community college personnel now find themselves having suddenly to examine their institutional goals and objectives vis a vis international students. The "coherence and forethought" which should guide policy formation are suddenly threatened by an economic, political, and social climate which makes an objective examination difficult and potentially unpopular.

Although their research took place more than a decade ago, perhaps the work of Goodwin and Nacht can be of use in providing some distance from which current college personnel may more safely explore the policy-making process. During their visits to campuses, they were able to distinguish eight reasons why

those they interviewed were interested in the subject of international students:

1: Some were attempting to construct a new vision of U.S. colleges or universities as institutions which had jettisoned their provincialism and now hoped to introduce students to a multinational world in which understanding and interaction with other cultures resulted in expanded markets, world peace, and less geographic and political isolation for the United States. Exactly what role their foreign students would play in such transformation was seldom spelled out, however (1-2).

2: Some decried the unplanned increase of foreign students at their institutions because they were spiteful and xenophobic, but most cries came from concerned individuals who believed their institutions were inadequately prepared to deliver appropriate services to foreign students (2).

3: As demographics affect domestic demand for higher education, some educators choose to look abroad for students who might fill their classrooms and dormitories (2).

4: Fluctuations in the U.S. economy produce shifts in geographical movement as well as shifting fashions in career fields such as engineering and the humanities. Foreign students may help stabilize institutions (2-3).

5. Some state legislatures move in haste against foreign students when there is a crisis in the treasury, when there is some revulsion against a foreign political situation, when there is a flood of refugees, when there is a public outcry about domestic students losing admissions spots to foreigners, or in response to complaints about unintelligible teaching assistants. Quotas and special fees are used as punitive measures for both institutions and foreign students (3).

6. Institutions sense a lack of coherent national policy, adding to confusion and crossed signals on the local level. The USIA and USAID funding has been cut back drastically, yet a generous visa policy is still in place: The Simpson bill would

require a "return home" period of three years for highly trained professionals, yet American research firms and universities are desperate for the skills that the new Ph.D.'s and technicians could provide (3).

7. Some seek to improve worldwide understanding, instill good feelings toward the U.S., export democracy, and strengthen the country's ability to compete effectively in the world's marketplaces. (Note the Soviet Union's decades long open policy of welcoming huge numbers of promising students to its Moscow universities as a clear route to exporting Communism to third-world countries (3-4)

8. Some are bothered by the inconsistencies of how a foreign student presence collides with a wide range of other issues including bilingual education, open-door admissions policies, urban-rural tensions, and differential funding. (4)

The concerns and interests raised by these eight groups, however, do not translate into a unified voice pressing for a clear policy which can guide either government agencies or local institutions. Goodwin and Nacht found that most state governors took a larger and more generous view toward foreign students than did state legislators. This appears to be true at the national level as well. In a Montana speech last June, President Bill Clinton said:

> "I spoke at the Air Force Academy commencement today down in Colorado Springs. There were 11 foreign students graduating from the Air Force Academy. All of our service academies take a limited number of students every year from other countries. And it's a great thing for our country. They go back home, they do very well, builds a lot of good will. The number one student this year was from Singapore. And when he stood up to be recognized, all those red-blooded American kids that he scored higher than clapped for him and were proud of him. That is the American way. They did not feel threatened by that." (Clinton 7)

This kind of remark hardly provides a clear policy direction, especially when California citizens are voting in two consecutive elections on issues of immigration and affirmative action, or Congress is debating a stringent Simpson bill which would gut engineering and technical departments around the country (Davidson). When medical schools refuse to train foreign physicians (Schmidt), Alabama

community colleges rescind athletic scholarships for foreign athletes (Blum), Illinois technical high schools drop all foreign students in response to American parental objections (Banas), or even New Jersey's own County College of Morris discontinues international tuition-assistance scholarships (Most), the message, in effect, is that financial and political considerations are either becoming policy or are replacing policy.

At the local levels, popular perceptions and misconceptions also cloud the issues. Labor fears: Should we be educating our economic competitors and taking jobs away from Americans? Parents fear: Aren't foreign students taking away classroom spots from our American kids? Racism: do we want all these Asians in our country? Taxpayers: Why shouldn't we make foreign students pay more? After all, they are not paying taxes. Isolationists: Why should we be educating the world? Let's spend that money on educating our own young people. Faculty: How much extra attention and time will these foreign students need from me? Administrative policy makers: What is an optimal number of foreign students for a campus? Does an institution which is already in a cosmopolitan setting really gain much increased diversity from a foreign student presence? Internationalists: Are we unfairly causing "brain drain" in some nations? Are we successful at helping U.S. educated students to return home and use what they have earned to benefit their own cultures? Especially women students? Foreign student advisers: Do we do enough to combat the poverty and isolation that culture shock imposes on students? (Goodwin, and Nacht 5-12)

Nor does guidance come from the latest federal higher education reform effort -- the Higher Education Act of 1992 -- which is described in a Journal of Higher Education article as a policy reorientation reflecting the fragmented institutional structure and the pluralistic culture of American higher education . Instead of providing direction in the issues of foreign students and faculty, the act

defers to institutions who must wrestle with the issues on their own (Hannah).

When Goodwin and Nacht explored the lack of policy at the institutions they researched, one prevalent view from high-level administrators was that there is virtue in non--policy because 1) too much xenophobia lurks just below the surface in the U.S. and the unscrupulous can easily exploit it; 2) the complex give and take which occurs at universities is not easily understood by those beyond the campus, and creating and publicizing a policy would invite too much attention from legislators, alumni, community members, etc. 3) there is no urgent situation which requires a solution. At some other institutions, everyone assumed that a policy was in place and that it had been devised by some other office in the institution, or by some state or national priorities. Still other institutions questioned whether a policy could ever be formulated when the foreign student area was so inextricably embedded in larger questions of overall institutional behavior, e.g. the concept of "demand" as a defining force in institutional decision-making, especially in recent decades (26-29).

Among many others, American diplomatic leader Henry Kissinger has called for inquiry into policy formation by pointing out that our attitude toward and treatment of foreign students often has lasting global consequences. Witness the case of Kwame Nkrumah who after his role as founding father and president of the new nations of Ghana, wrote about his years facing poverty, exhaustion, and racism at Lincoln College in Philadelphia. (Herbert 68.) Or consider the positive economic impact which a U.S. educated Asian business executive could have in the global marketplace. A Newsweek article estimates that between one-third and one-half of the world's top positions in politics, business, education and the military will be held during the next twenty-five years by the international students now attending U.S. colleges and universities, and yet studies show that more than 40% of such students feel "unwelcome, lonely, and isolated" at their

colleges. (Rentz 10) If Americans wish to maintain a global presence and global influence, it is time our institutions of higher education think seriously and systematically about what they want to do with their international students.

In undertaking a self-study process which might lead to policy decisions, the issues clearly fall into three categories: the economics of educating foreign students, the socio-organizational issues of students on American campuses , and the educational issues (Goodwin and Nacht 34). By considering the following questions, community colleges will be able to probe how these categories of issues apply to their individual institutions and formulate appropriate policy.

Self-Study Model

1. Does the community college mission include educating international students? Should it?
2. If the mission and goals of a community college are construed to include the education of international students, should such colleges offer participation in college programs such as scholarship, financial aid and work/study incentives to some or all of those students? Under what conditions? How much? For what period of time? Should that aid be applicable to ESOL non-credits?
3. Should international students studying under the auspices of federal government agencies such as the USIA and USAID be awarded different treatment than those who apply to study at community colleges through their own initiative and contacts? i.e. should USIA/AID exchange students automatically be awarded in-county tuition rates since their costs are already being born by U.S. taxpayers?
4. Should a community college actively recruit international students? Should it, for example, run a recruitment ad in an international magazine or have an admissions officer join an overseas recruitment tour?
5. Even though community colleges are traditionally open-access institutions, can the presence of international students nevertheless result in diminished access for American

students?

6. What is the optimal number of international students an institution should enroll either overall or in particular programs? Should there be quotas limiting the number of students from particular regions or countries?
7. Are our educational/curricular practices suitable for international students and our faculty prepared to teach them?
8. Is it desirable/ethical to use international students to shore up programs, particularly high cost technology and engineering programs, which would otherwise be closed down for lack of enrollment?
9. Is it wise to provide international students with skills which they might then take back to their homelands and perhaps use in economic or even possibly military competition with the U.S.A.?
10. Should student services be required to bear the extra costs of providing special services to international students?
11. Should international student athletes be awarded athletic scholarships?

In addition to and preferably before generating answers to the above questions, institutions will also need to do an audit of the international students currently on their campuses. Where did they come from? How did they hear about the college? Who are their sponsors? What are their motives in studying here? In what programs are they enrolled? How successful are they academically? To what extent do they participate in and contribute to the life of the college? What special services are provided for them? How much financial assistance is the college providing them? What do they do after they leave/graduate from the community college? Answers to such questions will help colleges see more accurately how policy decisions might impact their institutions.

Employing a self-study model such as the one above and involving broad

sectors of the college in discussions of the complex issues should help an institution clarify and isolate particular issues which have in the past remained unspoken or hidden on the campus. By including the results of the institution's audit of its existing international students in the discussions , community colleges should be able to wend their way through the complexities and formulate a policy which is responsive to the needs of the college, the students, the community, and to international students. In some ways, this process should be easier for community colleges than for many large research institutions where international graduate students comprise a large portion of the research and teaching assistants vital to the functioning of such universities. And yet in other ways, the close relationship between community and college may mean that the local political and social environments have more direct impact on college policy and may thus shadow the decisions and policies of the community colleges.

Some of the results of this inquiry process are predictable; community colleges will no doubt discover the validity of those national studies which show how the presence of international students actually generates jobs and income directly and indirectly for an institution and its community. The energy, enthusiasm, and commitment level of international students will feed the campus social and student activity climate. The broad interests of international students in global affairs will provide support for courses and programs, including languages and area studies, in the humanities and social sciences, and their skills in technical and scientific fields will provide an opportunity for many community colleges to offer higher level courses in those areas than might otherwise be possible. Colleges will find themselves able to forge relationships with institutions abroad when a significant number of their international students and faculty can serve as a bridge between academic administrations. American students will learn to work and interact with students from diverse backgrounds even when there may be

little diversity in the service area of the community college.

Whatever the situation at a particular institution, the number of international students coming to American community colleges continues to rise, suggesting that there is a certain urgency in facing the matter of self-study and policy formulation. Holding a serious self-study inquiry can benefit a college and yield a valuable planning document that can guide institutions into the next century -- a century which promises to be even more "global" than this one has been.

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MULTICULTURALISM: A DESIGN FOR INTRODUCTORY LITERATURE ON THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE LEVEL

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MULTICULTURALISM: A DESIGN FOR INTRODUCTORY LITERATURE ON THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE LEVEL

Multiculturalism in the literature curriculum has become problematic on the community college campus. Its arrival has created political and polemical conflicts for many English professors. In some cases, multiculturalism has entered the literature curriculum as a result of vigorous political activity on the part of groups who feel underrepresented, poorly represented, or unjustly represented in literary works. In other cases, it is a part of the struggle of well intentioned educators to use the curriculum to build self-esteem in underrepresented groups. Whatever the impetus, multiculturalism has been virtually an unstopable trend in the community college literature curriculum. Some groups see this trend as an opportunity to advance ethnocentricism; other groups resist these politically correct attitudes feeling that the inclusion of multicultural literature collides with traditional academic literary study. Even among those who believe the literature curriculum must be broadened to reflect global diversity, there is a wide range of opinion about how and what to teach and what not to teach about other cultures (Magner 1996). Increasingly, vocal academics like those in the National Association of Scholars resist a redesign of the curriculum and are reasserting the traditional curriculum which they

maintain is the basis of our society and sufficiently rich and satisfying to obviate the need for additions, never mind deletions from it (NAS, "Is the Curriculum Biased").

As educators, we are not clear about multiculturalism. How does it differ from American culture? We always have had a diversity of voices in the United States; why broaden the literature now? And does this broadening of readings from other cultures destroy our American tradition and water down the concept of literature itself? What do we intend? Do we want students to know a few or a variety of cultures? Do we want to compare and contrast other cultures to what we consider "American" culture. Do we envision learning from other cultures and developing elements of global culture within American culture for the good of humanity? It is only in the last several years that the intensity of these questions has resulted in dramatic changes in the type of literature that community college professors incorporate in their first level literature courses.

Proponents of multiculturalism in literature believe that cultural pluralism should be reflected in the curriculum. Most of these proponents look toward the ideal state of society in which diverse racial and ethnic groups coexist with mutual respect and equal rights even as they pursue their cultural traditions (Platt 1993). Thus, by incorporating various cultures into literature, a multicultural curriculum would seem to achieve the objectives of cultural pluralism. On the other hand,

opponents to a multicultural curriculum feel educators have the mistaken notion that merely including in the curriculum texts of various groups does not help solve the problem of coexistence. George Will charges that this approach may make problems worse rather than better and that, in fact, a backlash seems to be developing among disenchanted whites. Additionally, he feels strongly that the arbitrary mixture of multicultural texts may result in only superficial cosmetic change in the curriculum (Will 1990). Other vocal opponents to curriculum changes feel that not only does incorporating multi-culturalism obliviate the canon but also attributes to an increase in racial tension on campuses and feeds into political agendas of "guilt mongering groups" (NAS, "The Wrong Way").

While the debate continues, teachers of literature on the urban and semi-urban community college campus are faced with a student population that is extremely diverse and largely non-white and no longer ingrained in an American or Western European heritage. Soon Latin Americans will outnumber African Americans, just as now both together outnumber white Europeans in many American cities. This demographic revolution has coincided with and reinforced political pressures for inclusion by other traditionally powerless groups (Wilson 1995). While the case may be somewhat different for the national colleges and universities because they draw on the college age population from throughout the country, community college literature

professors seem to be faced with not whether to include multicultural literature into their courses, but how. This dilemna is especially prevalent in the freshman introductory literature class where the professors are inclined to include their students' cultural heritage into literature selections. Many of these faculty use a variety of ethnic literature not only because of the sensitivity to those students from a variety of cultural backgrounds, but also to affect a sense of global broadening in each student to enable them to meet success in a workworld that is global in nature (Magner 1996). Thus, cultural diversity offers an exciting opportunity to revitalize literature courses, giving them a new sense of purpose and a more inclusive definition of knowledge.

For those faculty who believe strongly in pluralism, the method of approach differs, with no one rational standard against which all diverse ways of thinking can be analyzed. Some faculty are products of a deconstructionist approach in literature. Following the philosophy of Derrida and Lyotard, they argue for the relativity of all literature (Lyotard 1982; Derrida 1992). Because there is no objective truth, they say, a pedagogical attempt to define a fixed canon is arrogant folly. Others feel that a haphazard accummulation of varied literature is no solution and that too often Western and particularly American literature is sacrificed for the incoporation of multiculturalism (Lovin 1992). Others feel it is not enough to give students a

recommended reading list or to simply add on a multicultural module to the "canon" (Howe 1991). Thus, multicultural design in the literature curriculum can be ineffectual or even destructive in achieving the purported goals of faculty. How, then, can or should curriculum design occur to ensure the global broadening college professors wish to instill in their literature classes? A design that goes beyond cosmetics requires rethinking how to capture the dynamic and relational aspects of ethnicity; how to understand the diversity as well as unity within cultural experiences; how to go beyond the binary position of assimilation vs. separatism (Platt, 1993).

In order to successfully accomplish these objectives in a first level introductory literature course, Chester E. Finn, Jr., director of the Educational Excellence Network, recommends a "constructive" multicultural curriculum which would "draw ideas, customs, and historical contributions from all our variegated groups and heritages..." (1990). Drawing these materials together in an organized manner will avoid the wrath of George Will who feels that multiculturalism in literature is fast becoming another rationale for a "curricular junkyard" (Will 1990).

Developing an introductory literature course, therefore, mandates a comprehensive array of literary pieces presented in a design that will enhance the student's ability to know better both the other occupants of the planet as well as American society. To introduce students

to dialogues of culture and meaning within and across societies and to create a growing awareness of the "other" both at home and abroad, this writer recommends three approaches: using differences to pursue unity; exploring context; and dialoguing the contemporary with the past.

USING DIFFERENCES TO PURSUE UNITY

A staple of teaching has been to present alternative interpretations and teach that weighing analytic conflict is part of understanding human affairs. It is now possible to teach about a variety of cultural communities outside the elite orbit; the materials are accessible and available. However, using literature to tell the members of a particular group about themselves, their ancestors, their unique qualities, how superior they are, how oppressed they have been is a destructive form of exploring differences because it can promote separatism (Finn 1990). Instead constructive multiculturalism draws ideas, customs, and contributions of all our variegated groups and heritages into a unified curriculum. Properly done, this produces educational content that is rich and full and evolving, as the heterogeneous society we inhabit. It shows the differences but emphasizes the commonalities-- the ideas, institutions, and norms that we share, whatever the color of our skins or birthplace of our grandparents. Such instruction entails the search for community and an appeal

to commonality, not one that flatters or denegrates particular groups.

To counteract Harold Bloom's charge that straying from the canon can lead college students to a kind of mindless openness (Bloom 1994), faculty members can foster in their students a far more complex range of intellectual and affective responses to diversity, such as respect, empathy, and a disposition to take seriously differing world views as basic intellectual virtues that a pluralistic society must cultivate. To serve these goals, the syllabus would emphasize multiple contributions to Western and world cultures. Assignments would find ways to help students recognize their own values and assumptions in relation to the literature they are studying.

American literature can be an integral part of this approach when presented as inherently full of individual conflict. Spiritual conflict can be seen in such writers as Poe and Melville as well as Faulkner and Hemmingway. Mark Twain, Whitman, Emerson can emerge as writers with new concepts of society whose merits often did not depend solely on the peculiar physical circumstances of American history but also on individual identity (Howe 1994).

The general themes of American literature can be seen in other literature as well, differences between the powerful and the excluded and in the experience of single human beings trying to mediate multiple claims and commitments in complex societies. E. M. Forster in A

PASSAGE TO INDIA, for example, represents India as Europe's other. His India, in fact, really is northern, Muslim, India. South India, Hindu India, appears in this book faintly as an even more inaccessible level of difference and otherness. India can be shown as similar to the United States, as a number of pluralities vying for position, threatening to split apart; Kashmir, Punjab, Dravidian/Aryan, the castes, the tribals beyond even the margins of outcast status. Multiculturalism, thus, can be shown as a recognition and toleration of the infinitely proliferating levels of complexity both in the experiences of others and in one's own culture.

EXPLORING CONTEXT

Using topics and issues in a concrete societal, historical, or cultural context is another approach that can connect pieces of literature together and incorporate American literature as well as the canon. Students can read, learn about, write about, and discuss pieces of texts from different cultures and traditions. The course will recognize that literature is important in its own right and on its own terms but will also place the culture within a coneptual framework which employs an understanding of how cultures work, how they change, and what significance they have. This method works on the principle of teaching students how to read, that is to engage and eventually to critique the internal structure and argument of the text.

In a course designed for exploring context, culture should be seen as a patterned system of meaning: the generative values, visions, rituals, and transactions of a society. It should imply the best that has been thought and done and the developed taste and understanding of those who studied the best (Dyer 1995). The faculty should have a strong commitment to using rich, complex primary works as source material. This is not to say that faculty should teach pieces of literature either as ends in themselves, as arguments among great minds, or as a way of testing independent philosophical and aesthetic standards. Rather faculty should select pieces of literature to explore cultural topics; for example, myths of origin and concepts of virtue or gender within Western society and across world cultures. The text then becomes an exemplar and agent of important ways of seeing the world; students are taught both that they can engage in the text itself and that they can view it as a lens into another way of life. Thus, studying the social and cultural implications of the literature does not neglect the work's internal structure and strategy. The faculty would teach that attention to cultural context illuminates aspects of works that might otherwise be missed. Works would be selected both on the basis of their literary worth as well as their cultural context.

Using this approach, the whole pattern of the American way of life can be shown as transplanted cultures. The resultant American themes of upward mobility, religion,

reform of relations between the sexes, conflict of manners between regions, as well as the problems of slavery and race are treated by writers such as Nathanial Hawthorne, Edith Wharton, Mark Twain, and Alice Walker. The American hero can be seen, therefore, as one creating values quite apart from either tradition or insurgency, deliberately conceived at a distance from any world. American literature, thus, can be seen as "... a response to disaffection in American society ...that sets the hero free to disengage himself from society. Thus the American hero becomes an embattered self finding freedom..."(Bloom 1994).

DIALOGUING THE CONTEMPORARY WITH THE PAST

Creating a multicultural society is a complex problem for community college faculty for the aim of this process is not just creating a multicultural experience but fostering a multicultural education. The solution to this problem too often clusters around two extremes. The first extreme, the politically correct solution, takes a critical view of everyone's past, but especially the Euro-American past. Political correctness rejects most of what has gone on before, both the claims of the dominant culture and the distorted cultures of the oppressed. In this sense, multiculturalism means freeing oneself from the past to allow peoples and cultures to be themselves in a way they have never been before or at least that they have not been in the five centuries since the age of conquest began (Adler

1990). The other extreme feels we can never master all of the world's cultures. Since our Euro-American culture is the most available or is "the best" it has some claim to priority (Banks 1993). However, the real problem, the fundamental problem, is how the past is related to the present (Lovin 1992).

In a pluralistic society like ours, relating the past to the present means understanding the multiple cultures that shape each individual as well as the multicultural diversity of our society as a whole. In introducing students to literature, which after all is a reflection of society, faculty should not only help them discover their Africanness or the persistence of Confucian values but also the features of their identity that have been shaped by middle class white folk. Thus, students' ability to analyze their own culture means in part helping students learn about and learn to address the multiplicities in American society.

Part of the problem in connecting the present with the past in an introductory literature class is that a structure built on a "time" basis begins with the past but never clearly connects to the present. Students study "in order" without ever directly connecting their studies to themes in contemporary American culture and society. Students are left to make connections or applications on their own. Even in the complaint that students are often only given Western literature and have not been introduced to other cultures, quite often any direct consideration of American literature

is neglected (Takaki 1989). At the other end of the spectrum, an introductory literature class can choose to ignore the past, suffering from the provincialism of the contemporary, veering wildly from fashion to fashion, each touted by the moment and then quickly dismissed (Howe 1991). But the past is the substance out of which the present is formed and to let is slip away is to acquiesce in the thinness that characterizes so much of the present criticism of multiculturalism. Losing touch with the heritage of the past results in a mere compedium of momentary complaints (Lovin 1992).

Thus, students in an introductory literature class should read some literature by Shakespeare, Tolstoy, Jane Austen, as well as Kafka, Emily Dickinson, and Leopold Senghor, not just because they support one or another view of social revolution, feminism, or black esteem, and not as dead texts of a dead past, but rather as a critical engagement with living texts from powerful minds still very much active in the present. These writers can be used to illuminate the understanding of the self in modern culture. They can be used to explain the assumptions and values that students take for granted because these assumptions and values are so much a part of their world that they have become invisible (Bercovitch 1986).

Literature should explore relationships. This relationship can be one where a piece of literature from the canon is linked with an actual popular belief and can

be seen to have meaning in several different kinds of contemporary societies. Students can take a fresh comparative look at ideas, values and assumptions that are intrinsic to American society by exploring the functions of past literature in relation to the functions of contemporary literature. Students can start with their direct experience of and differing responses to topical issues such as equality or power, and then reach back in time and/or across Western and world civilization to further illuminate and critically examine their perspective on their own society. Thus, students can be challenged to discover literature not as works that reside outside or above society, but as avenues to explore their own values, ideas, and experiences.

CONCLUSION

Multiculturalism has to be more than just a special project or piecemeal reform in the introductory literature courses in the community college. In the last decade, literature has provoked a great deal of rethinking about class/economics, race/ethnicity and gender/sexuality in our society. If faculty are open to teaching multiculturalism, they need an enormous amount of conceptual resources to design and structure courses like introduction to literature that capture the whole perspective of human history in its literature. A course design must incorporate literature that is designed to explain a clear, shared idea of what it would mean for someone to be a part of a multicultural society. Neither political correctness nor a blind

adherence to a "canon" provide an appropriate method of accomplishing this. The literature chosen must ultimately help students envision a society in which a wide range of individual beliefs and lifestyles can function together in close proximity, enriching one another by their difference. It must, above all, include American works, particularly those that reflect the essence of our culture as one that was established to incorporate differences and to promote individualism.

As we approach the year 2,000, many faculty in academia see globalizing their literature curriculum as a natural and necessary metamorphosis. However, incorporating multicultural literature in an introductory course should not be treated as trendy or anathema to the views of the canonists. Nor should it be designed simply as a tethering device for our sense of who we are, but rather who we, in each moment of time, become.

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NEW TECHNOLOGIES IN MATHEMATICS

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"Those who scorn computer history are those who really don't grasp what is happening today and will never really shape tomorrow." (Don Congdon, [1])

To understand the influence of new technologies in education, specially in the field of mathematics, we have to look back in the History of Information. By knowing the past we can have a better understanding of the present, and perhaps predict the future. Some instruments and Nobel technologies had an immediate impact on education, this was the case of book printing, the Abacus, the logarithms, or the Slide Rule. Others, like the Calculating Machine, the radio, the T.V., the computer, or the electronic calculator, needed more time to get proper recognition as educational tools. As a matter of fact the use of computers and graphing calculators in the classroom is a current, sometimes controversial, issue, subject to daily debate. The resistance to use these tools in education can be attributed to two factors, one of technological and logistic character, which includes difficulties with their use, cost, accessibility, and implementation, and the other one related to the human nature of potential users and their fear to the unknown, fear to be displaced by technology, lack of knowledge, and unwillingness to learn. In the end though, the History shows that new technologies always find their place in education, in fact, the radical changes in this process always coincide with the introduction of new instruments. The following table shows, in chronological order of appearance, some of the most relevant computational aids and mechanisms (other than oral) used by humankind to transmit information throughout the ages.

600 A.C.: Book printing begins in China.

1400: First calculating machine. The Abacus.

1614 : Logarithms and Napier Bones. John Napier.

1642 : Pascal's Calculating Machine. The Pascaline.

1650 : The Slide Rule.

1823-1843 : Babbage's first calculating machines. Ada's first "computer program."

1896 : Marconi invents the radiotelegraph.

1925 : First television transmission.

1944 : Aiken builds the first automatic computer. The Mark I.

1946 : ENIAC (Electronic Integrator and Computer)

1950 : Cable TV.

1951 : The IBM 701.

1952 : The UNIVAC (Universal Automatic Computer).

1956 : Texas Instruments patents the integrated circuit.

1971 : First use of the semiconductor chip. The pocket calculator.

1976 : Apple II introduces the first microcomputer.

1981 : The IBM PC.

1990's : The Information Age. Networking and the Internet.

The development of mathematics is directly or indirectly associated with these selected landmarks and we can analyze it from different perspectives. Focusing on physical devices, we can look at two major groups, the mechanical and the electric. Instruments from both groups played an important role in mathematics. The Abacus, The Slide Rule and The Calculating Machines (ancient and modern) for instance, are considered milestones in this History of Calculating. Next I include a brief, but informative description of some of these instruments.

The Abacus. The name Abacus derives from the Greek word ABAX, meaning table or board covered with dust. Its origin is unknown. What we know is that in its 'modern' form it appeared in China in the 13th century AD. The Chinese Abacus has 13 columns with two beads on top (heaven) and five beads bellow (hearth). Around the 17th century AD the Japanese copied the Chinese Abacus and adapted it to their way of thinking. Their version has 21 columns with one bead on top and four beads below. The Abacus is still part of the regular school training in the Far East, and is commonly used in many places. In 1946 a contest between a Japanese Abacist (Kiyoshu Matzukai) and an electronic computer lasted two days resulting in an unmistakable victory of the Abacist. A third modern form of the Abacus is Russian with 10 arched rows.

Logarithms. John Napier, 1550-1617. Napier played a key role in the History of Computing. Besides being a clergyman and philosopher he was a gifted mathematician. In 1614 he published his work of Logarithms in a book called "Rabdologia." His remarkable invention enabled the transformation of multiplications and divisions into simple additions and subtractions. His logarithmic tables soon became wide spread and universally used. Another invention of his, nicknamed "Napier Bones," was a small instrument constructed of 10 rods with the multiplication table engraved on it. This device enabled to multiply faster, provided one of the factors was one digit only.

The Slide Rule. The first Slide Rule appeared in 1650 and was the result of a joint effort of two Englishmen, Edmund Gunter and William Oughtred. This rule, based on Napier's logarithms, was to become the first analog computer (of modern ages) since it figured out multiplication and subtraction by physical distance. This invention was dormant until 1850 when a French Artillery

officer, Amadee Mannheim, added the movable double sided cursor, which gave it today's appearance.

The Calculating Machine. Despite all marvelous mechanical computational devices mentioned before, the glory goes to the Frenchman Blaise Pascal. In 1642, at the age of 21, Pascal invented the Calculating Machine, also known as the Pascaline. Blaise Pascal who was a gifted lad from childhood wanted to spend more time with his father, a tax collector. Since Dad was always busy at home adding columns of numbers, Blaise decided to invent a machine that would free his father from this tedious task. This machine, measuring 20" x 4" x 3", was of metal with eight dials manipulated by stylus. Today there are 50 surviving Pascalines manufactured by Blaise Pascal most of them in the large science museums. He built these calculators for sale, but clerks and accountants refused to use them for fear it would do away with their jobs. As far as we know, there were two prior attempts to create a calculating machine. The first one was by Leonardo da Vinci. His notes, found in the National Museum of Spain, include a description of a machine bearing a certain resemblance to Pascal's machine. The second one was by Wilhelm Schickard who invented a mechanical calculator in 1623. He built two prototypes, but their location is unknown. In 1820 the Frenchman Thomas de Colmar invented the 'Arithmometer' using a 'stepped drum' mechanism. This was the first calculating machine produced in large numbers. It was active until the late 1920's. The next generation of calculating machines came from the Swedish inventor Willgodt T. Odhner. His machine incorporated a 'pin wheel' mechanism. Based on mechanical principles, hundreds of manufacturers produced an amazing variety of calculating machines up to the late 1960's. Then they surrender to the appearance of the electric calculator and the computer.

The Computer. The First Generation Machines began with the ENIAC. Its designers were J. W. Mauchly and J. P. Eckert Jr. from the University of Pennsylvania. They completed the project in three years, from 1942 to 1945. This machine weighed 30 tons, contained 18,000 vacuum tubes and had dimensions 100' x 10' x 3'. On average, a tube failed every 15 minutes. Programming required six thousand switches to be set, and it took 200 microseconds to add and 3 milliseconds to multiply by three. In 1951 the US Census Bureau received the first UNIVAC, and with it the Computer Age began. IBM started building and marketing the IBM 701, followed by the IBM 650. The Second Generation of Computers (1958-1964) includes the IBM 7090, 7070 and 1410. These machines used transistors instead of vacuum tubes, reducing the size and improving the performance. The Third Generation (1964-1970) includes the first true minicomputers. The use of integrated circuits, improved the reliability, size, cost and power. One of the most popular was the IBM 360. The Fourth Generation (1970-) marks the beginning of machines based on microprocessors. Early microcomputers include Altair, EMCII, Tandy TRS-80, Atari, and Commodore. The industry, however, changed forever when S. Jobs and S. Wozniak built the first Apple computer. They did it in a garage, but by 1983, the company they founded, Apple, made the fortune 500 list. IBM announced its PC in 1981. Today, microcomputers like the IBM PC and the Apple Macintosh, are evolving with workstations into yet another generation of computer systems. The major innovation consists on sharing massive amounts of equipment and information resources throughout networks. This generation is bringing major changes in the way we work, teach and learn.

The Electronic Calculator. The first electronic calculators, like the IBM Selective Sequence EC (48K) with three levels of memory, electronic, relay and paper tape, were

constructed in the 1940's. In 1964 a Japanese firm introduced the first hand-transistor desktop calculator; it weighed 55 pounds and cost $2,500. However, the program that resulted in the development of the hand-held calculator was written in 1965. The authors were three Texas Instruments engineers, J. S. Kilby, who ha invented the integrated circuit in the late 1950's, J. D. Merryman and J. H. Van Tassel. They envisioned a calculator, based on integrated circuits and battery powered, that could add, subtract, multiply and divide, and fit in the palm of your hand. After two years of development Kilby, Merryman and Van Tessel completed their calculator at the Dallas headquarters of Texas Instruments. It could handle up to six-digit numbers, perform the four basic operations, and print results on a thermal printer. The calculator had an aluminum case, measured 4.25" x 6.125" x 1.75" and weighed 45 ounces. In 1975 the prototype device became part of the permanent collection of the Smithsonian Museum. Since then electronic calculators had evolved continuously at a dramatic pace. The latest generations include programable, scientific and graphing calculators.

In contrast with earlier technologies, pocket calculators did not have a very warm reception in mathematics education. It took about ten years, since their arrival to the markets in the early 1970's, to partially recognize them as teaching tools in the mathematics classrooms. Different reasons, some academic, some administrative, and others perhaps more personal as it happened with the Pascaline, contributed to this delay. They finally became common teaching tools in the early 1980's when their cost dropped considerably and the Academic Institutions agreed to revise the curriculum to allow their use. Nevertheless the controversy about the use of calculators in the classroom did not stop there and it continues today as new generations of machines become available. With the introduction of more sophisticated and powerful graphing

calculators, the old issue about their efficiency in the education process is resuscitated. While some Institutions ban or restrict their use, others strongly recommend or require them. A similar situation occurs with individual instructors when the Institution is indifferent to this matter. In all instances though, there is an increasing tendency toward the use of new technologies at all levels, mainly in applied fields. According to the NCTM's (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics) Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics, calculators should be available always to all students. Lynn Arthur Steen, executive director of the Mathematical Sciences Education Board, says that the MSEB and the NCTM share a general vision for technology in math education. Although Steen discounts the importance of using computers at the K-12 level, he acknowledges the role technology has had in shaping the new math curriculum when he says: "The curriculum is a mix of what we teach and how we teach it. Some topics used to be very important to teach. Now, because of computers and calculators, other topics are suddenly important." Others, like Judah Schwartz, professor of mathematics and physics at Harvard and MIT, passionately disagree. "That is a narrow view" he says, "I think computers are necessary tools for all math curriculum starting at age zero." James Landherr, mathematics coordinator for the East Hartford (Conn.) Public Schools, strongly believes that students need access to computers. Without them, he says, "they are deprived. Those who use programs like Geometric Supposer are more empowered to become better problem solvers. Students need to be exposed to technology because they need to be exposed to change to be flexible problem solvers with reasoning skills. In this day and age, you are handicapping those who don't get to use technology." Some like Jim Kaput, professor of mathematics at University of Massachusetts, go even farther when they claim that "you cannot really achieve what the Standards suggest without

technology." (The Standards include: Number Sense, Algebra, Data Analysis, Geometry, Measurement, and Computation. Important advances made in mathematics in the last twenty years, which include fractals, tessellations, and graph theory, are also accessible to K-12).

The truth is that the revolution in technology is affecting routine mathematical and scientific work, just as the industrial revolution affected manual labor. Graphing calculators, like the family of TI, HP, SHARP or CASIO, are already having a significant impact in the teaching of mathematics at secondary and college levels. They bring changes, not only to the way we teach, but also to the subject content. Furthermore, they have certain advantages over microcomputers, like portability, low cost and friendly-use. The symbolic capabilities of the calculators, however, are restricted due to their small memory and slow processing speed. Consequently, sometimes, it is convenient to supplement them with microcomputer software packages such as DERIVE, MAPLE, MATLAB or MATHEMATICA. Nonetheless, graphing calculators are very powerful computational and instructional tools. With these calculators the students can do multiple symbolic manipulations, numerical, and graphical analysis, avoiding the tedious pencil-and-paper process. This however, does not mean that we have to delete those topics from the curriculum. It would be a mistake to think that with new technologies there is no need to teach basic computations, theory of equations, curve sketching, differentiation or integration. If we look back, the adoption of the Slide Rule for instance, did not replace the teaching of arithmetical, algebraic or trigonometric operations. On the contrary, instructors had to teach more (and consequently students had to learn more) although with different emphasis. A similar situation occurs with the use of graphing calculators. Their incorporation to the teaching process implies the concurrent development of two interdependent tasks, learning the mathematical theories, and

the functions of the calculator. How to combine these tasks is a challenge instructors and students face, and, to certain extent, it is the core of the controversy about the use of graphing calculators. Personally I favor the use of new technologies, including graphing calculators, in the classroom. However, based on my experience with calculators and computers over the past ten years, I must say that

1. No machine can replace the instructor to carry out the must difficult part of teaching mathematics, which is getting the students to understand the concepts. A conceptual approach is crucial to understand the subject matter and its applications. For example, something as basic and important as estimations requires proper knowledge and understanding of the concepts involved in the procedures. Graphing calculators and computers however, can help students to understand certain concepts like oscillatory or harmonic motions, through the graphical analysis of motion pictures (see Appendix A.)

2. The students need to develop the necessary critical-thinking skills to analyze problems, develop solving strategies, interpret and judge the reasonableness of the results. At this point, computers and calculators must remain one step behind the academic process. Their main role, along with the graphical analysis, will be, as it was in Pascal's mind, to speed processes and not to replace fundamental knowledge. This role is by itself crucial because it replaces not only the tedious and time consuming computational process, but it also gives students and instructors more time to explore new concepts. How could we keep up with the astonishing progress of human knowledge without shortening the learning process? At least, in applied fields of mathematics, computers and calculators must be part of the answer.

3. A distinction has to be made when we teach applied mathematics to fields like engineering, and when we teach pure mathematics. While in applied fields computers and calculators could be used without practically any restriction, in pure mathematics their role would be, in general, less relevant.

4. The integration of new technologies to the teaching and testing process requires appropriate modification of all educational materials, including examinations. With the availability of computers and graphing calculators, the emphasis on computations, equation solving, or function graphing will no longer be same. The students will have to demonstrate the necessary skills to solve basic problems. Then they can take advantage of the new technologies to solve more, and more complex cases. They also can use them as instrumental aids to compare, interpret, and analyze the results.

As warren Esty points out on his article about "Graphics Calculators Concerns: An Answer," when algebra students with access to graphing calculators plot a graph, they should learn how to read it. This includes:

1. How the graph relates to the algebraic and numerical relationships it express,
2. How the graph relates to the equation we want to solve,
3. How the graph relates to the expression we want to maximize or minimize,
4. How the appearance of the graph depends upon the selected window, and
5. How to recognize interpret common types of expressions and equations.

As we will see next, the students can get most of this learning with the usual sorts of graphs that graphing calculators can draw. However, for a full comprehension of the subject matter we must supplement the automatic graphing and solving processes with some manual

work. This could include simple problems with hand-drawn graphs that do not have an associated equation, and various questions about them, without particular numbers. The testing process should also combine both skills.

The following examples show some capabilities of the graphing calculator used here for illustrative purposes, the TI-92. This versatile calculator has a QWERTY keyboard and employs a friendly graphic user interface (GUI). A set of function keys provides access to pull down menus, similar to a PC. With optional GRAPH LINK and cable software, we can transfer data and programs between the calculator and the computer, store information on disk or print it. (See Appendix B.)

Example 1. Graphing a function.

1. Display the Y=Editor.
2. Enter the function or functions.
3. Select 6:ZoomStd (or any other appropriate window) and press ENTER.

Example 2. Finding y(x) at a Specified Point.

1. From the Graph screen, press F5 and select 1:Value.
2. Type the x value, which must be a real number or expression, between xmin and xmax.
3. Press ENTER. The cursor moves to that x value on the first function selected in the Y=Editor, and its coordinates are displayed.
4. Press the up or down arrow key to move the cursor between the functions for the entered x value. The corresponding y value is displayed.

Example 3. Finding a Zero, Minimum, or Maximum within an Interval.

1. From the Graph screen press F5 and select 2:Zero, 3:Minimum, or 4:Maximum.
2. As necessary, use the up or down arrow key to select the applicable function.
3. Set the lower bound for x. Either use the left or right arrow key to move the cursor to the lower bound or type its x value.
4. Press ENTER. An arrow head at the top of the screen marks the lower bound.
5. Set the upper bound, and press ENTER. The cursor moves to the solution, and its coordinates are displayed.

Example 4. Finding the Intersection of Two Functions within an Interval.

1. From the Graph screen, press F5 and select 5:Intersection.
2. Select the first function, using the up or down arrow key as necessary, and press ENTER. The cursor moves to the next graphed function.
3. Select the second function and press ENTER.
4. Set the lower bound for x. Either use the left or right arrow key to move the cursor to the lower bound or type its value.
5. Press ENTER. An arrow head at the top of the screen marks the lower bound.
6. Set the upper bound and press ENTER. The cursor moves to the intersection, and its coordinates are displayed.

Similarly we can find the derivative of a function at a point, definite integrals, inflection points, the distance between two points, the equations of a tangent line, the length of an arc, or use Math Tools to analyzed functions. Through the INTERNET, a supplementary library of functions and subroutines for the TI-92 is also available. The current edition of this library is down-loadable at http:/www.derive.com. It consists of an ASCII text version of the document

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README.TXT, and three TI-GRAPH LINK(tm) group files, the UNIT.92G, the ELEM.92G, and the ADV.92G.

UNIT.92G implements units algebra and automatic conversions. ELEM.92G includes pre-calculus mathematics capabilities such as simultaneous nonlinear equations, regression, contour plots and plots of implicit functions. ADV.92G contains more advanced capabilities such as:

1. ImpDifN(equation, independent Var, dependent Var, n), which returns the nth derivative of the implicit function defined by "equation."

2. LapTran(expression, timeVar). If the global variable s has no stored value, returns a symbolic expression for the Laplace transform of thr expression in terms of s. If s has a particular numerical value, returns the Laplace transform for that particular value.

3. FourierCf(expression, var, lowerLimit, upperLimit, n). Returns the truncated Fourier series of "expression" for "var" from "lowerLimit" to "upperLimit," through the nth harmonic. With the split-screen feature we can get a simultaneous graphical representation.

4. Ode1IV(expressionForDeriv, indepVar, depVar, initValIndepVar, initValDepVar). Returns a symbolic solution of the 1st-order differential equation. Otherwise returns false.

Second-order Differential Equations, Surface Integrals, Centroids, Moments of Inertia, Characteristic Polynomials, Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors, Gradients and Divergencies, Curl, Gamma Function, Chevychev Polynomials, Normal Probabilities, Mean and Standard Deviations, are among other topics included in the library.

Along with the TI-92, a software package that I frequently use is DERIVE. This is a powerful system, yet affordable and easy to use for simplifying mathematical expressions, solving equations, and graphing functions. It runs on PCs based on the Intel 8086 or compatible

microprocessors. DERIVE's Utility Files contain multiple instructional commands that we can use as pedagogical tools in courses like Calculus, Differential Equations, and Linear Algebra. They offer students and instructors an opportunity to reform the curricula by applying the subject matter to complex real data. We can also employ them to analyze algebraic and graphical solutions of equations that model physical phenomena. The next four examples will give us a concise overview of DERIVE's capability.

Example 5. Plotting the Direction Field of a first order differential equation $y'=f(x,y)$. (Appendix C.)

1. Author the command DIRECTION-FIELD(f(x,y),x,x_0,x_m,y,y_0,y_n,n), where (x_0,x_m) and (y_0, y_n) are intervals on the x and y axes, and m and n are the corresponding step sizes.
2. Press ENTER, type approXimate, and press ENTER again. The result is a matrix of 2-component vectors which create the direction field through their graphical representation.
3. Type Plot twice from window 1 for a plot of the direction field.

Example 6. Solving an Exact equation of the form $p(x,y)+q(x,y)y'=0$.

1. Author the command EXACT_TEST(p,q,x,y) and Simplify. A result of 0 guarantees that the equation is exact.
2. Author the command EXACT(p,q,x,y,x_0,y_0) and Simplify.

Example 7. Using Euler's Numerical Method to obtain an approximation to the solution of the Initial Value problem $y'=f(x,y)$, $y(x_0)=y_0$.

1. Author the command EULER(r,x,y,x_0,y_0,h,n), where h is the step size and n the number of steps.
2. Press ENTER, type approXimate, and press ENTER again. The result is a vector of n-coordinate pairs which are an approximation for the points in the solution curve.
3. Type **P**lot twice from window 1 for a plot of the approximate solution.

Example 8. Determining the n^{th} degree truncated Taylor series solution of a system of first order differential equations $y'=r_k(x,y_k)$, k=1,2,...,m.

1. Author the command TAY_ODES(r,x,y,x_0,y_0,n), where r=[r_1,...,r_m], y=[y_1,...,y_m] and (x_0,y_0)=initial value.
2. Type Simplify. The result is a vector whose entries are n^{th} degree truncated Taylor series which approximate the entries of the solution vector y.
3. Type Plot twice to plot a particular entry, but make sure to first highlight only the entry.

In a similar way we can solve linear, separable, and second order differential equations with initial conditions. We can also apply other numerical methods, like Runge-Kutta and Picard, to physical phenomena, like damped or undamped force vibrations, LRC circuits, and harmonic motions.

As we can see, graphing calculators, like the TI-92, and software packages, like DERIVE, are not just calculating machines. Appropriately used, they can be very valuable conceptual aids and effective tools in both, the learning-teaching and the testing process. Professional mathematics organizations, such as the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM), the

Mathematical Association of America (MAA), and the Mathematical Education Board of the National Academy of Sciences (MSEB-NAS), have strongly endorsed their use in mathematics instruction and have emphasized that, consequently, they must be used in the testing process. So far all indicators point toward a complete integration of new technologies to the math curriculum. New computer systems, interactive technology, and graphing calculators, will mark the beginning of the 21st century in mathematics. To make the transition viable, math instructors should know what these machines can do and what topics will benefit the students most. They would also have to learn how to test the students and not the devices. Thus, all current mathematics teachers should get formal, and most importantly, frequent training in the use of computers systems and calculators. Rejecting the use of new technologies in the classroom is not a realistic approach, and improvisation or trial-and-error is not enough. On the other hand, diverting class time to learn how to use a calculator by experimentation is not a recommended practice. As a matter of fact, graphing calculators and computer systems should be a required component in all mathematics curricula, and the Mathematics Departments should have an ongoing mandatory training program in new technologies for all instructors.

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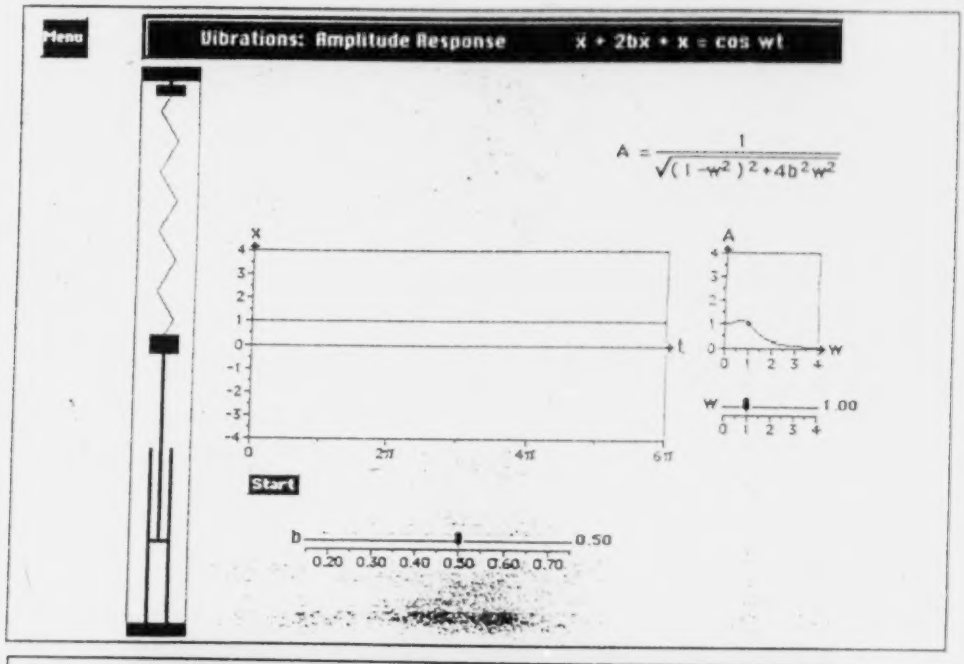
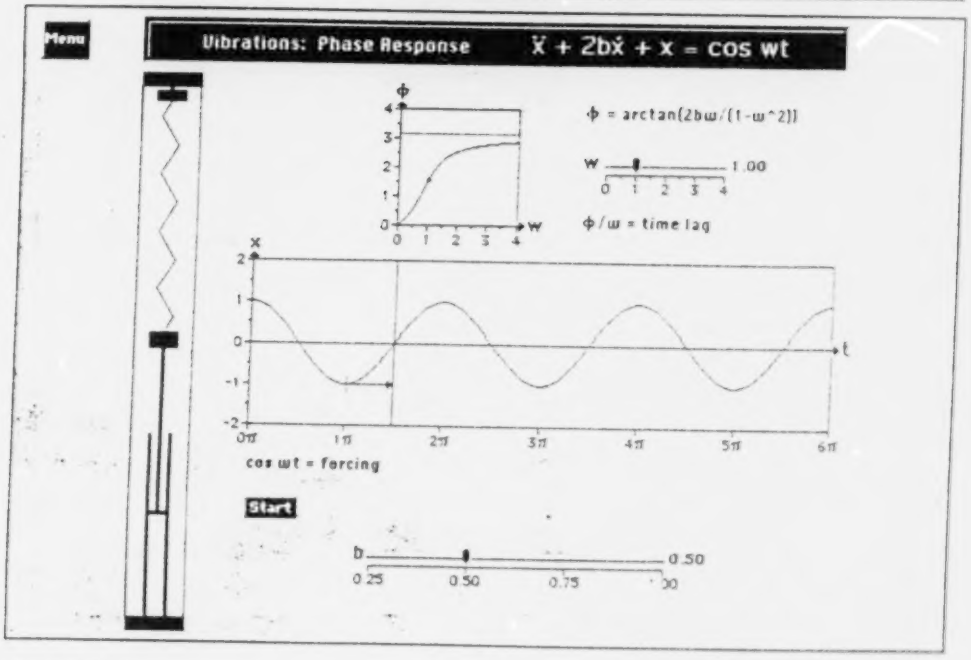
Appendix A

Vibrations: An example of Amplitude and Phase responses (IDE Addison-Wesley Interactive)





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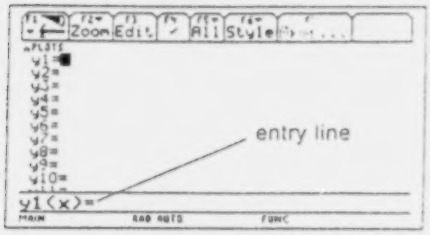
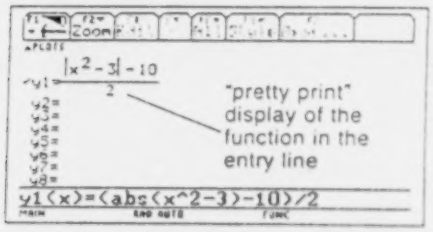
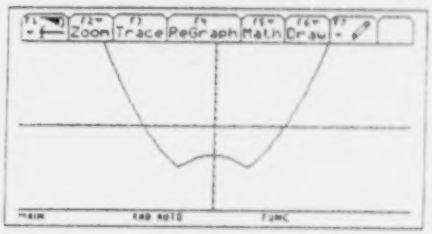
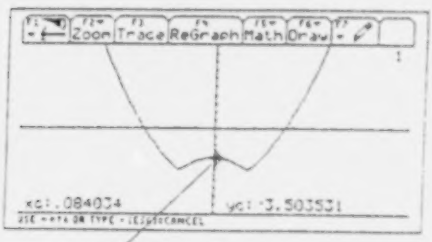
Appendix B

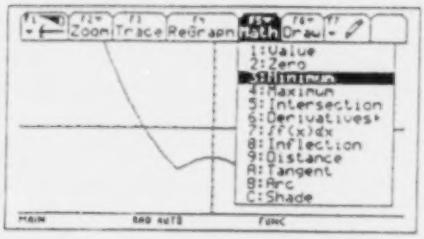
Exploration of graphing capabilities of the TI-92: Function graphing and relative extrema

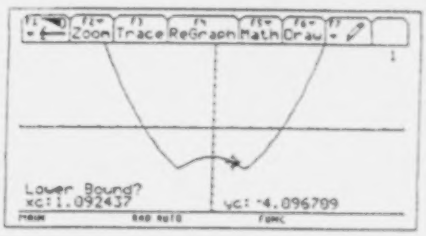


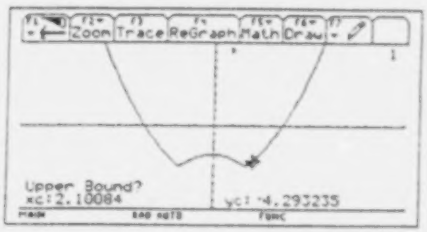


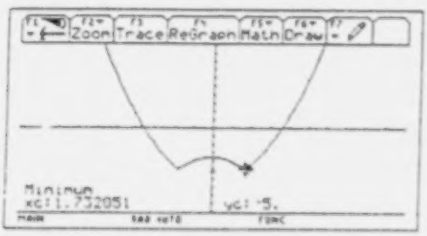


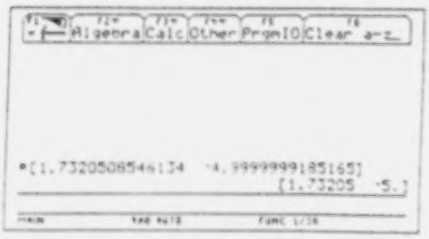












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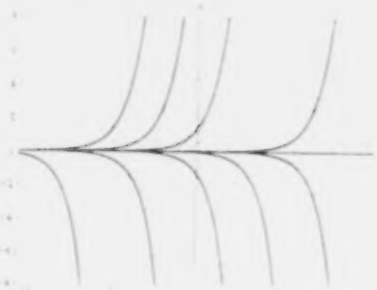
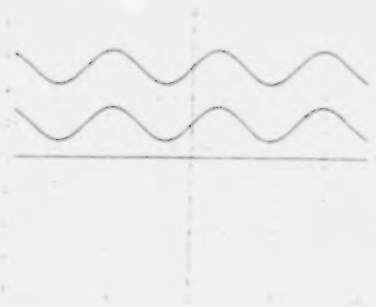
Appendix C

Six examples of direction or slope fields

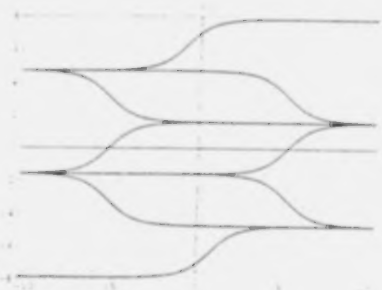
1) $x = x$



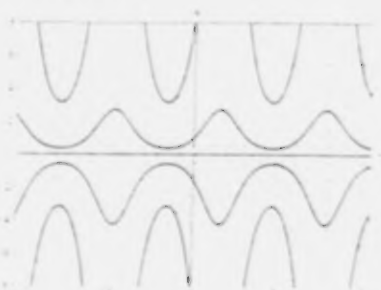
2) $x = \cos t$



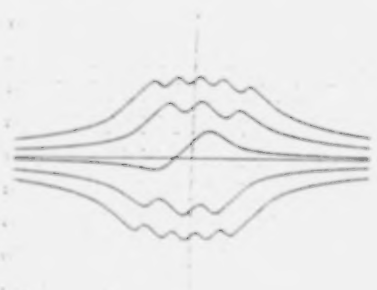
3) $x = \cos x$



4) $x = x \cos t$



5) $x = \cos tx$



6) $x = x - t$

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PROPOSAL FOR AN

EARLY RETIREMENT INCENTIVE PROGRAM

AT

MERCER COUNTY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Arthur E. Schwartz
Mercer County Community College

Mid-Career Fellowship Program
Princeton University
1996 - 1997

Introduction

Many institutions of higher learning, both two-year and four-year, are experiencing severe financial difficulties. One attempt to deal with rising operating costs, capital expenses and salaries is to increase tuition. In a recent article of *Time* magazine entitled "Why Colleges Cost Too Much," it was reported that tuition increased twice as fast as the overall cost of living during the past 20 years.

Large tuition increases not only limit the accessibility to higher education for many people, but can also have a significant negative impact on enrollment with fewer students having the resources to afford full-time college expenses. Thus, a solution to solve the college's budgetary needs may produce an enrollment problem that is equally devastating.

If this cycle is to be broken, institutions must look at creative ways of cutting costs while maintaining quality instruction, services to students, and a broad range of course offerings. This paper will attempt to look at a possible solution to help institutions become more cost effective or at least control increases in the area of faculty salaries.

Early Retirement Incentive Plans (ERIP), if done properly, can help colleges manage costs by replacing senior faculty with younger, less experienced faculty and in some cases, where appropriate, with adjunct faculty at even greater savings. In addition, ERIPs can ease the problem of reducing staff as a result of declining enrollments and budgetary constraints without resorting to riffing junior faculty, who generally lack the seniority to protect them when positions or programs are eliminated. As stated in the report *Graying Teachers* (Auriemma, Cooper, & Smith, 1992), the authors note that "the advantages of good incentive plans are clear: smooth transitions from one teacher generation to the next, financial savings, revitalization, new ideas, and improved education."

My intention in this paper is two-fold:

1) to present a broad representation of a variety of ERIPs which appear to have been successful both for the institutions involved as well as the participants (retirees);

2) to recommend an ERIP specifically designed for Mercer County Community College (MCCC).

By analyzing several existing early retirement incentive plans, I will attempt to select those characteristics which I feel will best fit the needs of MCCC. Hopefully, this approach will provide a basis for justifying my recommendations and offer a reasonable measure for predicting its success.

Methodology

My investigation of various ERIPs can be grouped into four major categories:

*State Plans

*K-12 School Districts

*Universities

*County Colleges

My research emphasis was placed on universities and county colleges wherein I examine nine institutions, each of which had a significant early retirement incentive plan.

In an effort to maintain some control over the length of this paper as well as narrow the focus on the major characteristics of the various ERIPs, I have gleaned only aspects of the plans that I consider to be of vital importance. In the appendix, I have listed my sources to which the reader can refer if details and/or a more comprehensive analysis of each plan is desired.

State Plans

With regard to the two state plans reviewed, I found that the New York State plan for 1995 was extremely comprehensive. This plan addressed the problem of dealing with employees who participated in public retirement plans (state/city) versus private retirement programs such as TIAA-CREF. In the case where employees were enrolled in a public pension plan, eligible

employees were given 1/12 of a year credit for each year of service, not to exceed a maximum of 3 years of service credit. For members of TIAA-CREF, there was a monetary incentive calculated as :

(1/12) x (# of years of service) x (15%) x (base salary)

(where number of years of service is limited to 36 years.)

Thus, the maximum payout would be 45% of base salary for employees with 36 or more years of service. This bonus incentive is paid out over a period of 26 months in three equal payments. Eligibility requirements include a minimum age of 50 and 10 years or more experience. This two-prong plan was a "targeted incentive," that is, ***positions vacated due to the incentive must be eliminated.*** An amendment was approved that allows replacements in school districts (except the State universities) if employer can demonstrate a savings of 50% of the amount of payroll that would have been paid to the retiree for a two-year period. Although there was no data indicating the cost effectiveness for the 4,800 employees who took part in this program, it is reasonable to expect that this targeted approach saved the state a substantial amount of money.

The Minnesota Legislature offered a very modest ERIP from 1990 through 1992 which provided employees between the ages of 55 and 65 an opportunity to retire with free health insurance until the age of 65. In 1993, the legislature added an additional incentive that increased retirees pensions by 15-19%. An example given involved a state employee who retired at age 65 with 30 years of service and a base salary of $36,000. Under the incentive plan, the pension would increase from $16,200 to $18,900 (approximately a 17% increase). Unfortunately, there were no details given as to how the increases in the retirees' pensions were calculated. I can only assume that it was probably similar to the New York State plan where employees were given additional service credit based on years of service or possibly a fixed amount, such as 5 years. With regard to the latter, if the service time is increased by 5 years (which has been used by New

Jersey in their latest ERIP) from 30 to 35 years as given in the example above, it results in an approximate 17% increase.

In a follow-up survey of the Minnesota ERIP covering the period from 1990 through 1994, "three -quarters or more of employees said that the overall impact of the incentives is positive." It was further reported that "about two-thirds of school administrators felt that the early retirement program improved the quality of teachers, while only 6 percent thought that there was a loss of quality."

K-12 School Districts

In looking at K-12 School Districts, I focused on a specific school system, the Castro Valley Unified School District, and a broader study involving an extensive survey of 48 school divisions in Saskatchewan, Canada.

The Castro Valley district initiated a phase out plan over a five-year period (1 to 5 years). The typical plan involved a teacher who would work for one semester, rather than two, and the salary would be pro-rated accordingly. Since minimum eligibility requirements are 55 years of age and 10 years of teaching experience, even full-time replacements for retirees should yield significant savings immediately. In addition, the district can make definite plans for permanent replacements or adjust staffing allocations based on district needs. The three benefits for the employee are: a smoother transition to full retirement; full health benefits during the transition period; and a continuation of retirement fund contributions by both the teacher and the district at the full-time salary level. Thus, an employee working half-time for the 5-year period will be credited with a full 5 years toward his/her pension plan.

The study involving the Province of Saskatchewan was valuable not in giving specific ERIPs, but rather in the methodology of surveying its 48 districts in an attempt to identify those areas of agreement which might be addressed in an early retirement incentive plan. The summary report, prepared by Mike Fulton of Educon Services for the SSTA Research Centre, was commissioned by the Centre in response to inquiries by the Boards of Education in Saskatchewan. The report states that over 67% of the districts have developed some sort of ERIP.

Most of the participating boards in Saskatchewan chose a monetary incentive based on years of service-usually a percentage of salary in the final year of employment or a number of days of salary per years of service.

It was further reported that approximately 41% of the boards offered a lump sum incentive. Interestingly, the preferred practice was to pay out the incentive over a period of two or more years. This approach allows the boards to spread their cost over several years while immediately taking advantage of the savings realized through the retirements.

In my opinion, one of the major outcomes of this report was the Guidelines for Policy Development of an ERIP. They are as follows:

1. Include a statement of purpose which outlines the reasons why the board has chosen to offer early retirement incentives, for example:
    - to promote ongoing renewal of teaching staff
    - to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools
    - to realize financial savings over time
    - in recognition of the potential benefits to students, staff, and the school
    - to recognize years of faithful and committed service by teachers
    - to assist in the transition from employment to retirement status
2. Outline the eligibility requirements, including number of years in the system
3. Define the level and extent of the incentive, for example
    - a monetary base incentive amount or an incentive based on years of teaching
    - some other arrangement
4. Carefully outline the procedures to be followed by teachers when applying for an incentive
5. Set deadlines for when teachers may apply and indicate to whom they apply
6. Outline payment procedures, for example
    - to a fund of the teacher's choice over a period of two or more years
    - in a lump sum

7. Explain the voluntary nature of the program
8. Outline the board's procedure with respect to notifying teachers about the availability of the incentive.

Universities

The University of Missouri offered employees a one-time only incentive to retire early. This plan involved a window of one year and approximately 700 of the 1,700 faculty and staff who were eligible took advantage of the ERIP. Although incentives varied from campus to campus, the most common approach was to add 3 to 5 years to employees' service records or to calculate their pension benefits as if they were 3 to 5 years older. The former appears to be similar to the Minnesota State plan offered in 1993.

R. Kenneth Hutchinson, associate vice president for human resources for the university system, estimated that annual savings would be approximately one-half of the more than $23 million annual payroll costs for the retirees. (Note: This seems a little low). These monies would be used to help offset pension benefits estimated at $2.5 million per year for 20 years. While Hutchinson called it "a means of getting smaller gracefully," critics argued that such a plan "can leave some departments decimated, while others are untouched."

The University of California, from the period of 1990-1994, offered a similar plan to approximately 2,000 faculty or about 20% of the entire university faculty. The net savings realized was approximately $200 million. However, the problem of not being able to control in what academic areas retirements would occur was cited. Despite this concern, it was agreed that without an ERIP, there would have been mass layoffs, salary cuts and dismissals of non-tenured and junior faculty.

The University of Virginia offered an ERIP over a three year period from 1989-1992 which involved two options. One option was a phased retirement where faculty contracted for 50% of their full-time load per year for 1 to 5 years, but not beyond age 70. This was similar to the Castro Valley school district plan. Option two required that faculty retire between the age of

65 and 67 (upper age limit was waived during the first year of the plan) in exchange for one year's salary paid in two installments over the first year of retirement.

One of the most creative ERIPs that I reviewed was instituted by McGill University in Quebec, Canada. The plan was adopted in February of 1996 and was offered to faculty and administrative staff who were 55 through 64 years of age. The regular plan provided for a monetary incentive of "5% of current salary for each year of service or 75% of the total salary that would have been earned to age 65, whichever is less." Furthermore, during a one-month window beginning April 15, 1996, there would be an additional incentive of 6 months current salary. This incentive would also be available to any faculty 65 or older.

In addition to the regular incentive plan, faculty are eligible to commit to early retirement preceded by a reduced workload (minimum of 50% normal load) from one to six semesters. If this option is selected, then the additional incentive of 6 months current salary would be decreased by 1/6 for each semester of reduced workload. The university estimates that if no replacements were made, it would take less than 18 months for the salary savings to offset the incentive costs. Officials anticipate no more than 20% replacements thus the pay-back will be somewhat longer.

County/Community Colleges

In reviewing five county colleges (four from New Jersey), I was particularly impressed with Camden County College's ERIP. The college presented a two-part program between 1994 and 1996. Part one involved a typical incentive plan which offered a payment for unused sickleave for faculty with a minimum of 20 years of service. The retiree would receive "a lump sum payment equal to $60/day for not more than 50% of unused accumulated sick leave." The second part of the ERIP provided for a 'transition sabbatical leave." The purpose of the leave was stated as to "offer faculty members a transition from active employment at the college to other pursuits while providing continued financial support" and at the same time, give the college "more flexibility in responding to the needs of students and the labor market."

Eligibility requirements included 15 years continuous service and the sum of the faculty's age and service must be at least 75 years. ***Administrators make the final decision based on impact on quality of instruction, budgetary limitations and percentage of department/discipline or faculty applying for leave.***

This leave has two options:

a. Full sabbatical for two years at half pay

b. Faculty member would work full-time for the fall semester at regular salary and take the following calendar year as transitional leave with one year's salary.

Cumberland County College's ERIP was available for one year to full-time faculty with a minimum of 10 years service. The incentive was a lump sum payment and was calculated by the formula:

[65-Age] **x** [10% of Base Salary]

Example: a 57 year-old faculty member with 10 or more years of service would receive:

[65-57] **x** [10% of base salary] = 80% of base salary

Middlesex County College in its 1995-1997 contract had two plans based on age. Those individuals age 60 or younger would receive 100% of their final year's salary if:

60 years old and 11 years of service

59 " 13 "

58 " 15 "

57 " 17 "

56 " 19 "

55 " 21 "

If the faculty member was over 60 years old upon retiring, a sliding scale would be used from 80% for an individual 61 years old to 10% for a person 69 years of age.

Gloucester County College's ERIP focused on unused accumulated sick leave. The payout was $80/ unused sick day for faculty with 20 or more years of service. If service was 10 years or more but less than 20 years, the total payout was pro-rated as follows:

19 years service yield 19/20 of maximum

18 years service yield 18/20 of maximum, and so on...

(Note: This does not seem to be an early retirement incentive plan since the amount received by the faculty member increases for each year of service.)

Dutchess County College in New York State offered 95% of base salary for those retiring at age 55 with 10 years of service or at any age less than 55 with 20 years of service. For faculty from ages 56 to 64 with 20 years of service, there was a pro-rating from 90% down to 10% of base salary. The college also offered full coverage in the health insurance program until age 65.

Recommendations

After careful review of the various ERIPs, I am convinced that a plan similar to McGill University's is best suited to an institution such as Mercer County Community College. Its two-prong approach offers the most flexibility both to the college and the faculty. Unfortunately, MCCC would not be able to offer a package as generous as McGill's. Because of its much smaller size and relatively large number of senior faculty, Mercer could not absorb the initial financial impact of such a plan.

With the above in mind, I am proposing a modification which I believe can allow MCCC to recoup any up-front costs within the first year after implementation.

My ERIP for MCCC is as follows:

I. Eligibility Requirements - Faculty member must be 55 years or older and have completed 25 years of service at MCCC upon termination of employment.

II. The Window of Eligibility - Faculty must declare their intention by choosing Plan A or Plan B (including choice of 1, 2 or 3 year option) between Sept. 15, 1997 and

Jan. 15, 1998. Effective retirement date for Plan A is June 30, 1998 and Plan B is June 30, 1999 through June 30, 2002 depending on option.

III. The Selection Process - The Board of Trustees has final approval in determining which divisions, departments or programs will be eligible based on staffing needs and financial constraints. However, within the targeted areas, selection and approval of faculty will be based on seniority.

IV. The Monetary Incentive Plans

A. Plan A

Faculty member opting to retire at end of 1997-98 academic year will receive:

(2% of final year salary) **x** (# of years at MCCC)

Ex. Using typical faculty member eligible under this plan with 28 years of service and an approximate salary of $66,000

(2%) ($66,000) (28) = $36,960

Note 1: This money would be recouped by the college in one year with a full-time replacement.

Retiree - $66,000 + $16,000 (fringe benefits)	=	$82,000
Replacement - $36,000 + $9,000 (fringe benefits)	=	-$45,000
Savings	=	$37,000

Note 2: The faculty member can have an option to receive the payout over 1-3 years which could be used to supplement the pension plan. This is especially helpful if the retiree is not immediately eligible for full social security. It would also enable the college to recognize savings in the beginning of the first year.

B. Plan B. (Transitional Retirement)

In lieu of the above, a faculty member can commit to a transitional retirement plan from one to three years which must be declared at the time of application. The faculty member would teach half-load at 60% of 1997-98 base salary.

Ex. The typical faculty member would receive

60% of $66,000 = $39,000 for each year

Therefore, the cost to the college each year using a full-time replacement for the remaining half-load would be:

$39,600 + $13,000 (fringe benefits) + $ 23,000 (1/2 of f.t.) = $75,600*

Thus, the savings each year for the college would be:

Current faculty- $ 66,000 + 16,000 (fringe benefits)	=	$ 82,000
*Above Costs	=	-$ 75,600
Savings	=	$ 6,400

This is considering full-time replacements, using adjuncts at present rate would save the institution approximately $23,000 per faculty member per year.

V. The Non-Monetary Incentive Plan

* Full life-time health benefits for faculty member and spouse as provided by existing contract for individuals with 25 years of service
* Free access to MCCC Internet and library services
* Full recreation pass including use of pool and fitness center for life for both faculty member and spouse
* Free tuition and fees (up to 8 credits per semester) for both faculty member and spouse

The non-monetary incentives of my proposal are extremely important. The health benefits aspect coupled with the monetary incentive should enable the faculty member to retire with two of the major concerns assured- financial security and health benefits protection. The last three non-monetary incentives provide the faculty member with a continuous affiliation with MCCC and the ability to pursue a retirement which includes both physical and intellectual opportunities.

The Early Retirement Incentive Plan which I have presented above should enable senior faculty to retire in a manner which is consistent with their present lifestyle. In addition, the plan allows the institution to realize savings within the first year of implementation. The selection process gives the administration the ability to target those areas which best serve institutional needs for restructuring. These factors, together with the transitional plan, provide the college with the opportunity to respond to staffing needs over a projected period of three to four years.

At the very least, this proposal provides the basis for meaningful discussions and planning which will hopefully lead to an established ERIP at Mercer County Community College that will benefit the entire institution.

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Has Collective Bargaining Damaged Shared Governance?

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For
Princeton University
Mid-Career Fellowship Program
May, 1997

I have been involved in collective bargaining at Union County College since its inception in 1975. With the exception of approximately two or three contracts, I have participated in negotiating all the faculty contracts at the college. In fact, while I was acting Dean I even negotiated a contract for the administration.

I have found the process of negotiations to be at different times exciting, frustrating, fun, boring and exhilarating. While I for the most part believe in the necessity of the process , I do also occasionally have some reservations concerning its appropriateness in the academic setting and some doubts concerning whether or not it actually achieves the goals that faculty desire. Perhaps a brief review of the history of collective bargaining at Union County College and what I perceive as its influence on the evolution of relations between faculty and administration might help explain my feelings.

Beginning in the 1960s Union College, although a private institution began to function as the county's community college. This was accomplished by the establishment of a coordinating agency established by the county that funneled funds from the state and county to the college. This, of course, required that the college adhere to some of the regulations governing community colleges, such as open enrollment and so forth. During this time no official collective bargaining agent existed at the college. The faculty was governed by an elected Faculty Executive Committee, composed of approximately twelve faculty members, that had the task of communicating with the administration concerning academic and non-academic faculty and college wide matters and overseeing all faculty committees. One such committee was the Welfare Committee. The primary task of this

committee was to informally negotiate with the President and the Board of Trustees. The policies, rules, obligations and rights of the faculty were spelled out in the Faculty Handbook that was drafted by the Faculty Executive Committee together with the Board of Trustees. A chapter of the American Association of University Professors existed at the college at this time, but it did not participate in bargaining.

In the early 1970s feelings of discontent among some of the faculty began to emerge, or at least began to be expressed openly. Most of the dissatisfaction seemed to be related to a sense that the faculty was no longer adequately involved in decision making at the college. This discontentment came to the fore and gained momentum when a Dean, who was popular with most of the faculty, was dismissed. At this point, the faculty formally began to consider unionizing although there was a good deal of apprehension among the faculty. Eventually, the AAUP was elected as the bargaining agent for the faculty and the first formal negotiations began in the summer of 1975. Although both the faculty and the administration retained attorneys and the process was not completed until the early morning hours on the day classes began, the contract that was negotiated essentially incorporated the material that already existed in the Faculty Handbook.

The following negotiation went fairly smoothly with little other than salary being disputed. However, the negotiations that took place in 1979, augured what was to come. During this negotiation the administration demanded increases in class size. This demand angered most of the faculty and resulted in a three day strike. In spite of this, an increase in class size was finally negotiated. This resulted in the faculty sensing that they had lost a battle and set the stage for another strike the following year. This strike lasted

approximately thirteen days and ended after the administration agreed to a minimal reduction in class size.

Despite the aacrimony that was engendered by this negotiation, it did not spill over into the general relations between the faculty and administration. Indeed, a week after the strike ended and classes commenced, the president of the college invited me out to lunch to discuss ways that communication between the faculty and administration could be improved and a more cooperative atmosphere could be created.

This did lead to an improved relationship and the next two negotiations were relatively easy, with little more than salary increases being in contention. In 1984, the Department of Higher Education arranged a merger between Union County Technical Institute and the college, and we became a public entity, renamed Union County College. The merger required the merging of two distinct faculties and curricula, modification of the Faculty By-Laws and an election to determine which of two different bargaining agents would now represent the merged faculty.

By the time the next negotiations started, the president of the college who had been involved in the merger had died and was replaced by an individual from outside the state. This negotiation was much more involved for several reasons. A number of modifications to the contract were made in an attempt to satisfy both of the newly merged faculties. The new president took office after negotiations were already under way. Having no in depth knowledge of the history of the college and the relationship that had existed between faculty and administration, he attempted to direct negotiations in a different manner. The result was that a portion of the contract was settled, with a

stipulation that a number of items of contention would be negotiated at a later date. This resulted in a continuing negotiation over several individual items for over a year, producing a prolonged sense of uneasiness in the faculty.

After this president resigned, our current president took office. As with the previous president, he took office while negotiations over a contract were already under way. Due to a misunderstanding between an arbitrator and the faculty and administration, a one day strike occurred. It was quickly settled the following day and classes got underway. The following two negotiations have been amicable and settlements have been agreed to fairly early in the process. Although on the surface the relationship between faculty and administration appears cordial, there has been some deterioration. For the last several years, the administration has shown a willingness to enforce or apply its own unique interpretation to provisions of the contract that were until then ignored or honored only loosely. This has led to an fairly dramatic increase in faculty grievances. The administration has also demonstrated a reluctance to settle such grievances informally, rather they are extremely willing to have these issues decided by outside arbitrators.

Almost every aspect of governance that they wish to revoke from the faculty is explained as necessitated by state regulations or a changing educational climate. For example, one grievance pressed by the administration concerned the non-reappointment of a full-time faculty member. The reappointment would have also granted tenure to this individual. The evaluation by faculty committees were mixed. At the departmental level it was recommended that he receive reappointment, but not tenure. A college wide committee recommended that he receive both reappointment and tenure. The

administration chose not to grant reappointment, although the rationale they used was not in accord with the criteria stated in the contract. The union therefore filed a grievance on the individual's behalf. Although the union's position was upheld by an arbitrator, the administration appealed this decision to the state court, where the arbitrator's decision was overturned. From the very initiation of the grievance it was apparent that the union and administration were concerned with different issues. The union, or more precisely, the faculty considered the faculty member a worthy teacher and wished to retain him. The administration was more concerned with the issue of reappointment and tenure and perceived this as a precedent setting grievance. Although the criteria for reappointment and tenure as stated in the contract do not differ, the faculty had never questioned the administrations request for separate evaluations and recommendations. It was not likely that the reappointment of this faculty member would have been cited in future cases as precedent. The faculty was concerned on with this individual. The administration saw the issue from a much broader perspective and felt the necissity to have its prerogatives confirmed by the courts. Conversely, the union, by virtue of its legal obligation, must support complaints and grievances of faculty members, even though they at times have seemingly little merit.

In addition, there is a tendency to put pressure on the union to negotiate individual contractual items outside the collective bargaining arena. The frequently heard justification for these activities is the professed administration's need to gain greater flexibility in hiring, curricula, and conditions of work so that the college can keep abreast of the rapidly changing educational environment. Again this can have both positive and

negative aspects. Modifying contractual agreements due to problems that arise rather than waiting for the expiration of a contract can be profitable to both the faculty and administration. This has occurred several times at Union County College. An agreement concerning the amount of overload that could be requested in any semester was modified when it became apparent that a few faculty members were abusing the previsions that had been negotiated in the previous contract. An agreement on departmental coordinators was also drafted in an interim period. But the productive nature of this activity depends on the willingness to cooperate by both the union and administration. When there is a demand to negotate and threat is employed, the process is, in the long run, endangered. This also occurred. The administration demanded the right to hire temporary, or non-tenure track full time faculty and wanted to negotiate this with the union. The union executive committee was told that if it refused to negotiate on this item, the Board of Trustees would develop a policy, since this was a management prerogative. The use of threat as in this case will, of course, reduce the willingness of the union to negotiate with the administration on individual matters.

Perhaps much of this would have resulted even if no union existed. Conceivably, it may have occurred with greater rapidity. Nonetheless, I have a sense, as do others that the collective bargaining process intensifies the division into "us" and "them" between faculty and administration

In their 1967 report a task force sponsored by the American Association of Higher Education proclaimed a commitment to the concept of shared authority, suggesting there was "a community of interest within which faculty members and

administrators cooperate in governing colleges." This statement was endorsed and disseminated by the American Association of University Professors. The statement was, in fact, accepted by many administrators at various colleges. Both faculty and administration appear to have seen merit in such a stance. As Birnbaum (1980) suggested faculty and administrators often have the same background and training and thus often share similar values.

Wollett (1973) states that professors frequently seek the same degree of status and self government as do other professionals such as lawyers and doctors. Therefore, they often seek to have a significant influence on college policy concerning admissions, grading, student conduct, academic freedom, appointment of new faculty, department chairs and deans and presidents.

Since most college presidents were once members of a faculty, one would presume that they would understand and support such faculty aspirations. Further, one would expect that they would seek a harmonious relationship with the faculty since, ideally, this would result in a more perfect academic institution. Yet, one discerns that this is not the case, not just at community colleges but four year institutions as well. One can examine the relationship between the presidents and faculty of Boston College and Rutgers, as just two examples of quite acrimonious relationships. It might be argued that to some extent the relationship is influenced by the personalities of the individuals involved. In the two cases cited above, this appears to be one of the factors. I also have observed, having negotiated contracts with three different presidents, that each had differing approaches to bargaining and their personalities seemed very much to influence what they deemed to be

important issues, what issues became major problems, how easily or amicably they were resolved and how they perceived the bargaining process and its outcome in terms of their ego. However, Birnbaum notes that both faculty and administrators are affected by their roles, particularly during the dynamic process of bargaining. He cautions against attributing problems in the process or outcomes on the personalities of the individuals involved.

This may be true and the real problem may be the collective bargaining process itself. Graham & Walters (1973) comment that the collective bargaining process adopted by institutions of higher education had its origins in the industrial world and was incorporated into the educational milieu without modification. In the industrial realm, the bargaining relationship is truly one of conflict between employer and employee, each having distinct and differing interests. As Graham & Walters indicate "...workers have no role in deciding what work will be done, by what methods or by whom, or what should be the policies or goals of the organization." These are the concerns of management. Workers are primarily concerned with economic issues, salaries and benefits and working conditions, not with decision making. Ironically, unionization came to higher education precisely because faculty sensed that such a division was being established in their domain. Angell (1973) points out that collective bargaining in higher education began earliest in public two year colleges. He suggests that this was due to the fact that faculty at these institutions perceived themselves as college level instructors, while many administrators sought to impose an authoritarian, elementary or high school level of management upon them.

But Wollett states that the system of self-government does not adapt easily to collective bargaining. "Managerial decisions, regardless of who makes them, are likely to become the source of complaints and the prime generator of grievances." He also notes that the scope of bargaining is the issue that creates the greatest degree of emotion in educational bargaining. "...academic administrations attempt to utilize collective bargaining to narrow the scope of faculty authority and meaningful participation in decision making." On the other hand, he warns if the faculty truly wants a voice in decision making they must be willing to take on the obligation of self-regulation, and be committed to peer evaluation and discipline. Birnbaum suggests that faculty are often confused about the true consequence of bargaining. An example of this, he indicates is "...reflected in faculty desires both to unionize and to have representation on the board of trustees. These orientations toward governance are basically incompatible with one another."

There are those who insist that collective bargaining does achieve the goal of shared governance. Two articles published on the AAUP Internet website in 1996 take this position. Finner notes that the AAUP has for a number of years held the view that "...collective bargaining is an appropriate vehicle for securing faculty governance and thereby protecting academic freedom and tenure." He goes on to state that those who believe collective bargaining is incompatible with professionalism are absolutely wrong. An analysis of contracts negotiated at various institutions supports this, he argues. Most contracts incorporate AAUP standards concerning academic freedom and tenure and reference AAUP documents concerning governance. He adds, that the AAUP national

office, has had far fewer complaints about issues of academic freedom and tenure at those institutions that negotiated an AAUP contract. He suggests this is due to the fact that "a collective bargaining agreement both protects faculty and provides a grievance mechanism for adjudication of complaints."

In the second article, Stoner declares that faculty are under attack from a number of sources, political assaults on tenure, wide-spread anti-intellectual sentiments, corporate administrative mentality and student consumerism. The only way to protect academic freedom, he states is through collective bargaining.

Not all the difficulties that exist in the relationships between faculty and administration can be blamed on the collective bargaining process. Certainly, many existed prior to its appearance and many have other sources of origin. Federal and state laws, political and popular pressure to reshape the education system, dependence on public funding all place pressures on educational institutions and tend to force administrators to attend to different pressures and a different audience than the faculty. These factors have also tended to drive a wedge between the faculty and administration. In other words, there may no longer be that commonality of interests that presumably once existed between faculty and administration.

Graham & Walters in their article state that with some modification the collective bargaining process can be adjusted to satisfy the educational model of shared governance. I am not certain this is true. The process by its very nature creates antagonism and results in written, stated duties and limitations for both parties. The written word of a contract can at times become the playground of knaves. In addition there are various factors and

factions pressuring educational institutions which tend to exacerbate the differences in roles played by the administration and faculty.

As noted above, articles by Finner and Stoner both suggest that union contracts have protected academic freedom and tenure. Negotiated contracts may have also provided faculty with a wage that is greater than it would have received without a union. And perhaps maintained adequate working conditions.

But a union and the negotiated agreements it achieves is no panacea. Contracts can limit as well as protect freedom and variation. They can narrow the focus of faculty to a concern for salary and working conditions. A focus unfortunately that received additional approval from the New Jersey Supreme Court some years ago. This can be damaging, since administration and outside political and special interest groups can then portray the faculty as not interested in it professionalism or mission, but only with money.

On the other hand, without the protection of a union faculty may have no input into curriculum, college policy and other decisions central to the academic mission of a college.

Ultimately, it is probable that it is not whether there is a union or not, but the environment and personalities of the individuals who are the administration and faculty of a college and their willingness to cooperate, compromise and work out solutions to their problems in a productive rather than an adversarial manner.

Perhaps the ideal of shared governance that some see damaged by the bargaining process, in fact never existed. Possibly, it is only a reconstruction of a imagined past. Or if it once truly did exist, it is not clear that collective bargaining is a vehicle that can

guarantee or even facilitate its return. Maybe Humpty Dumpty has fallen, shattered and will never be made whole again.

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Foreign Languages at New Jersey Two-Year Colleges

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Foreign Languages at New Jersey Two-Year Colleges

In a recent article from the New York Times, a survey of 2,772 two- and four-year colleges in the United States shows that traditionally taught foreign languages such as French, German and Italian showed a decline in enrollment between 1990 and 1995: French, -25%; German, -28%; Italian, -12%. During the same five year period, Chinese, Arabic and Spanish showed an increase in enrollment: Chinese, 36%; Arabic, 28%; Spanish, 14%. At Union County College betwee 1990 and 1995, French, German and Italian showed a greater decrease-- -46.3%; -30.5%; -23.1%; -6.3% respectively--than the decrease shown at the two-and four-year colleges cited in the Honan New York Times study, showed an increase of 14%, while at Union, it showed a decrease of -2.5% (See Attachment #1).

The main purpose of this study is to show what enrollment trends have occurred in foreign languages during the last three years at Union County College and at the seven other community colleges in New Jersey who responded to the questionnaire and are contained within the present study (See Attachment #2). Further, it is a goal of particular importance to the present writer to try to discern why foreign languages enrollments are declining at Union County College. Finally, the most important goal of this study is to identify means by which the community colleges can enhance their foreign language offerings and can work in concert to expand offerings in traditionally-taught languages such as French, German,

Italian and Spanish as well as less traditionally-taught languages such as Chinese, Japanese and Korean.

The information contained within this study is from several sources: first, a questionnaire was created and sent to the 18 other community colleges (See attachment #4.) Its purpose was, in part, to trace foreign language enrollments over the last three academic years. The questionnaire also included questions to the respondents about various alternative types of language courses such as telecollege courses and travel abroad programs. Information about enrollments in less traditionally-taught courses such as Latin, Polish, Arabic, Hebrew, etc. was requested. Respondents were asked to provide information about curricula at their institution that required a foreign language. Finally, they were asked to include information about innovative ideas that might lead to attract, retain and stimulate student interest in languages. A second source of information for this study was provided by the Office of Institutional Research and Planning of Union County College. Additionally, the New Jersey Fact Book and Directory showed enrollment trends of the full-time and part-time students over recent years at all 19 of the New Jersey two-year colleges.

The issue as to why Union and three of the other seven community colleges contained within this study showed an overall enrollment loss during the past three academic years in an important one; of equal importance is the issue as to why three of the community colleges in the study showed gains in overall language enrollment. It is not, however, the purpose of this study to speculate as to

the reasons for increases and decreases in foreign language enrollment at the seven other responding community colleges. Because of the many years of involvement of the present writer at Union, and because of the sense of total willingness and cooperation of the Director and Staff of the Office of Institutional Research, Evaluation and Planning to provide relevant and up-to-date information for this study. it is to Union that the speculation will be limited in regards to the overall decline in language enrollments. The final phase of this study will include recommendations for maintaining and expanding foreign language enrollments at all of the community colleges.

In an effort to understand why foreign language enrollments are decreasing at Union County College, one needs to look at the population demographics of the county: in 1980, 504,094 people resided in Union County; in 1990, 493,819, and the projection for 2000 shows a population of 495,500, a very slight increase over 1990 (Union County College, Strategic Plan, p. 46.) A statistic that impacts even more heavily on Union County College enrollments is that the population aged 19 or less has decreased 35% over the past 20 years, dand the population of those between the ages of 20 and 24 has decreased significantly as well. The only age group that has increased in population is the 65+ category (Union County College, Strategic Plan, p. 49.) It is clear that the loss of population, especially of the traditional college-age students 18-24, will cause a decrease in total college enrollment, and it will also cause a decrease in the number of students studying foreign lan-

guages. An additional factor in the loss of foreign language students is the racial and ethnic changes that have occurred in the county during the last 30 years. In 1970, there were 439,185 White residents in Union County, and there were 60,723 Black residents. In 1990, the White population had decreased to 322,247; the Black population had increased to 91,678. During the same twenty-year period, the Hispanic and Asian population increased from 43,208 to 111,501 (Strategic Plan, p. 50.) In summary, the decrease in the number of students studying foreign languages at Union College is attributable to several factors: the decrease in the county population; especially in the college-age group; the increase in Hispanics and Blacks whose academic preparedness level impact negatively upon foreign language enrollments, especially French, German and Italian. An additional concern is that there needs to be made a more concentrated effort to provide opportunities for Spanish-speakers to take courses appropriate for them--i.e. Spanish for Hispanics and Latin American Literature courses. This problem will be addressed further in the section of recommendations for maintaining and increasing foreign language enrollments.

A related problem in maintaining language enrollments lies in the area of students who are already enrolled at the College. One of the most telling and important studies conducted by the Office of Institutional Research, Evaluation and Planning

Fall 1990, Fall 1991 and Fall 1992. It traces their progress during a three-year period While the number of students who graduate from the College withing each three-year period increased from 12.6% during the 1990 to 1993 period to 14.1% during the 1992 to 1995 period, the most significant statistic which seems to have the greatest impact on foreign language enrollments is the number so-called "transfers" (student who transfer to another college before acquiring a degree from Union. The number of these transfer students for each three-year period increased dramatically. For the 1990-1993 cohort, transfers comprised 6.8% of the first group; for the 1991-1994 cohort, transfes comprised 10.9%; for the most recent group, 1992-1995, transfers comprised 15% of the group. These figures have a double impact on foreign languages. First, students who do not earn a degree in Liberal Arts generally do not take a foreign language. Second, increasing numbers of four-year colleges do not require foreign languages for admission. Therefore, if a student decides to transfer before earning his A.A. Degree, and he/she transfers to an institution which does not require a language, he/she will not pursue foreign language study at Union.

Now that some of the contributing factors have been identified that have caused enrollment declines in Modern Languages at Union County College, the further and more meaningful objective of this study becomes to suggest and to implement, where possible, the changes that would help to reverse this enrollment trend. The following recommendations do not offer any facile answers but

rather suggest the need for innovative ideas and a new sense of cooperation among the faculty and staff of the various educational institutions within Union County and among the state community colleges.

The first recommendation involves Interactive Television operates by means of fiber optics withing a Interactive Distance Learning System. This new technology allows the teacher to reach students at other sites via a television hook up. It also permits students at other sites to see and interact with the teacher and all of students at all the interconnected sites. The possibilities for teaching foreign language to two two or three locations augers well for languages. As an example, Union College has three campuses: Cranford, Elizabeth and Plainfield. One of the problems faced by language courses is meeting the minimum enrollment requirement of 15 students for each class. It is difficult to run three classes of same level language courses on all three campuses. With an Interactive Television set up, the course could be taught on one of the campuses and have sufficient enrollments to make a class with the requisite number of fifteen. Currently, Spanish is being taught to students at Warren County Vocational School from Linden High School. The possibilities for connections between Union and the Union County high schools would offer advantages to both the College and the high schools. This sort of interaction could also be effected among community colleges. One area of great potential involves teaching non-traditional languages. It may be noted in Attachment #3, Table 4 that Japanese is taught at College

8. With an Interactive Television connection, other community colleges could connect to College 8 in order to receive Japanese. Polish, Arabic and Chinese are taught with small enrollments at a few of the colleges. Other colleges could hook up to a site where these languages are taught.

A second recommendation to increase foreign language offerings and enrollment at Union is the idea of creating more courses to the specific needs and interests of the Spanish-speaking population. As has been seen in the Strategic Plan, the Hispanic and Asian population of Union County has increased from 60,723 in 1970 to 79,979 in 1980 and to 82,380 in 1990 and is projected to be 111,501 by 2000 (Strategic Plan, p. 50.) The Modern Language Faculty needs to offer courses like Spanish for Hispanics and Latin American Literature to the Spanish-speaking citizens. Further, there is a need to offer these courses on the Elizabeth Campusd or at least to make these courses accessible to students on all three campuses in order to insure offering all students equal access and to reach minimum course enrollment requirements.

A third and final recommendation is to encourage more community outreach programs in foreign languages. It is of singular importance to note that of the eight community colleges, only Union offers travel abroad courses. This is an area where Union has done an outstanding for the past 30 years. This year, as an example, a trip to Spain was offered for credit or non-credit depending on the needs of the students. In May we are offering a trip to French-speaking Canada. Twenty-five people have already signed up. The course is offered jointly by the English/Fine Arts/Modern Languages Department and the Economics/History/Government Department. Stu-

dents may enroll for foreign language credit or may earn credit in Government. What is important is that many of the students are not enrolled at Union; they come from diverse groups such as senior citizens, the Board of Trustees and other individuals who are interested in a travel-vacation. This travel course fulfills two important recommendations of this study: the need to cooperate with other academic departments within Union and the need to appeal to non-traditional students, thereby increasing language enrollments and serving the community.

As a final observation and summary, it is the belief of this writer that each faculty member needs to monitor enrollment trends within his/her discipline. At community colleges like Union, where enrollments are decreasing and the so-called "traditional" students are not as numerous as in past years, this is particularly important. The author recalls with nostalgia when languages were required in all liberal arts curricula. Union ran 3 or 4 section of Advanced Spanish. This year it didn't run because lack of sufficient enrollment. Presently, the same phenomenon is occurring among many of the "sophomore-level" courses, due, in part, to declining enrollments in many areas. The focus of the present study has been to trace foreign language enrollments at Union and at the seven other community colleges and to try to point out the causes for enrollment declines. The declines are partly due to county population loss, the loss of "traditional" students, and the problem of "transfer' students who; leave without earning a degree. Although the figures are not readily available, another factor in the loss of students may b the competition from four-year colleges who accept students who might ordinarily have enrolled in the community

colleges. Among the recommendations made, it seems essential to utilize new technologies such a Interactive Television so that low-enrollment courses can be offered on more than one campus or at more than one college. It is a further ecommendation that Union enhance offerings in travel courses and courses for specific ethnic groups to meet the needs and aspirations of the diverse segments of the county not seeking credit nor following a specific adademic program. Not all of the Union County constituency is degree-driven. Union County College and the other 18 community colleges in New Jersey need to make a concentrated effort to attract and retain foreign language students. It is hoped that the present study will help to meet this need.

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Attachment #1

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENTS PERCENTAGE INCREASES IN FALL 1990 AND 1995, FROM A SURVEY OF 2,772 TWO-AND FOUR-YEAR COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES COMPARED WITH FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENTS AT UNION COUNTY COLLEGE:

2,772 two-and four-year colleges	Union County College
1. Chinese +36%	Not offered
2. Arabic +28%	Not offered
3. French -25%	French -46.3%
4. German -28%	German -30.5%
5. Italian -12%	Italian -23.1
6. Spanish +14%	Spanish -2.5%

Attachment # 2

TABLE 3:

TOTAL MODERN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT AT RESPONDING COMMUNITY COLLEGES
COLLEGE + PERCENTAGE INCREASE/DECRREASE BETWEEN ACADEMIC YEARS

	971 = 964	961 + 954	951 +944	AY 96-97 AY 95-96	AY 95-96 AY 94-95
1.	1001	1101	1186	-9.1%	-7.2%
2.	1952	N/A/	N/A	N/A	N/A
3.	301	309	388	-2.6%	-20.4%
4.	231	246	302	-6.1%	-18.5%
5.	1034	971	N/A	+6.5%	N/A
6.	349	317	285	+10.1%	+11.2%
7.	899	869	929	+3.4%	-6.5%
8.	1905	1840	1865	+3.5%	-1.3%

ATTACHMENT #3
TABLE 4:

MODERN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENTS: PERCENTAGE INCREASE/DECREASE IN THE MOST COMMONLY TAUGHT MODERN LANGUAGES BETWEEN ACADEMIC YEARS*

	ENROLLMENT AY 96-97	ENROLLMENT AY 95-96	ENROLLMENT AY 94-95	ENROLLMENT INCREASE/DECREASE 95-96--96-97; 94-95--95-96	PERCENTAGE INCREASE/DECREASE 95-96--96-97 94-95--95-96
COLLEGE 1: (Union)					
FRENCH	116	142	164	-26; -22	-18.3%; -13.4%
ITALIAN	117	137	115	-20; -22	-14.6%; -19.1%
SPANISH	754	786	859	-32; -73	-4.1%; -8.5%
COLLEGE 2:					
FRENCH	425	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
ITALIAN	235	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
SPANISH	1158	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
COLLEGE 3:					
FRENCH	41	19	29	+22; -10	+115.7%; -34.5%
SPANISH	260	290	345	-30; -55	-10.3%; -16%
COLLEGE 4:					
SPANISH	198	202	228	-2; -26	-1.0%; -11.4%
COLLEGE 5:					
FRENCH	107	121	N/A	-14; N/A	-11.6%; N/A
ITALIAN	91	79	N/A	+12; N/A	+15.2%; N/A
SPANISH	762	796	N/A	-34; N/A	-4.3%; N/A
COLLEGE 6:					
SPANISH	293	215	225	+78; -10	+ 36.3%; -4.4%
COLLEGE 7:					
FRENCH	106	110	114	-4; +4	-3.6%; -3.5%
ITALIAN	97	92	57	+5; +35	+5.4%; +61.4%
SPANISH	644	606	519	+38; +87	+6.3%; +16.8%
COLLEGE 8:					
FRENCH	224	226	214	-2; +12	-0.9%; -5.6%
GERMAN	142	128	139	+14; -11	+10.9%; -7.9%
ITALIAN	179	173	193	+6; -20	+3.0 %; -10.4%
JAPANESE	43	34	48	+9; -14	+26.5%; -29.7%
SPANISH	1150	1124	1156	+26; -32	+2.3%; -2.8%

N/A = Responding institution did not provide this information.

* = Languages with fewer than 40 students enrolled during the academic year 1996-1997 are not included in the enrollment figures.

Attachment 4a

QUESTIONNAIRE CONCERNING **MODERN LANGUAGES AT NEW JERSEY COMMUNITY COLLEGES**

1. Name of your institution_____

2. Name of the individual(s) providing this information_____

3. Please list all of the foreign languages offered for credit at your institution (not including E.S.L.):

1._____ 5._____

2._____ 6._____

3._____ 7._____

4._____ 8._____

4. Please list the number of sections and total enrollment for each language offered for credit during each semester listed:

Spring 1997 (971):

Language	Sections	Total Enrollment
1. Spanish		
2. French		
3. Italian		
4. German		
5. _____ (other)		
6. _____ (other)		

Fall Semester 1996 (964)

Language	Sections	Total Enrollment
1. Spanish		
2. French		
3. Italian		
4. German		
5. _____ (other)		
6. _____ (other)		

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Attachment 40

Spring Semester 1996 (961)

Language	Sections	Total Enrollment
1. Spanish		
2. French		
3. Italian		
4. German		
5. _____ (other)		
6. _____ (other)		

Fall 1995 Semester (954)

Language	Sections	Total Enrollment
1. Spanish		
2. French		
3. Italian		
4. German		
5. _____ (other)		
6. _____ (other)		

Spring 1995 Semester (951)

Language	Sections	Total Enrollment
1. Spanish		
2. French		
3. Italian		
4. German		
5. _____ (other)		
6. _____ (other)		

Attachment 4c

Fall 1994 Semester (944)

Language	Sections	Total Enrollment
1. Spanish	_____	_____
2. French	_____	_____
3. Italian	_____	_____
4. German	_____	_____
5. _____ (other)	_____	_____
6. _____ (other)	_____	_____

5. Does your college offer any telecollege courses ? _____Yes _____No
If "yes", in what languages and what is the enrollment in each course?

6. Does your college offer any travel courses or study abroad program?
_____Yes _____No. If "yes", in what languages, and what is the enrollment in each course?

7. Does your college require foreign languages curricula, and if so, please list curricula in which languages are required.

8. Please list any innovative techniques that you may use to attract, retain or interest students in foreign languages.

9. Thank you for your attention and time. If you would like a copy of the results of this survey, please indicate your name and mailing address below.

Name: _____

College: _____

Address: _____

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